



Ashesi University College

**“Is Ghana’s Higher Education System Delivering Value to Graduate Students?”: A
comparison of foreign trained to in-country trained university lecturers in the
private university system**

By

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Undergraduate dissertation submitted to the Department of Business Administration,
Ashesi University College. Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the
award of Bachelor of Science Degree in Business Administration

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April 2017

Declaration

I hereby declare that this undergraduate thesis is my original work and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

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I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this undergraduate thesis was supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of theses established by Ashesi University College

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Acknowledgement

To my Supervisor Dr. Armah, without your constant support, guidance and encouragement I would not have come this far. To my family members who believed that I could undertake this research, God bless you. Most importantly, I would like to give thanks to the Almighty Father who made it possible for me to successfully undertake this undergraduate thesis.

ABSTRACT

This study seeks to determine whether the graduate higher educational sector in Ghana is providing a sufficiently high quality of education for its clients, namely, the graduate students who eventually become lecturers. The research questions tackled by the study are: Are foreign trained lecturers working in Ghana's private higher education sector more effective than locally lecturers with regards to teaching quality and ability to earn promotion in a 5- year period? Can any differences found between the two different workers be tied to their educational background and in particular to whether they were trained abroad?

To answer these questions, the research employs an exploratory design and employs data collected using both qualitative and quantitative techniques from a sample of 120 students, 6 lecturers, 3 heads of academic departments and 3 human resource department heads in three private higher institutions in Accra. The principal finding is that foreign trained lecturers are more effective than locally trained lecturers in terms of teaching quality, research output and ability to earn a promotion in a 5-year period in two of the institutions (A and B) whilst the locally trained lecturer in Institution C was found to more effective in teaching quality. This findings implies that governmental policies must be implemented to encourage the repatriation of foreign trained workers to enhance economic growth. This would be achieved through their increased productivity, as well as, spill overs such as increasing the productivity of locally trained workers through transmission of knowledge and skills.

Key words: Graduate higher education, locally trained lecturers, foreign trained lecturers, teaching quality, research output, private universities

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DEFINITION OF TERMS

Human Capital - Human capital represents the investment people make in themselves that enhance their economic productivity (Olaniyan & Okemakinde, 2008).

Brain Drain - is the “phenomenon of abandonment of a country in favour of another by professionals or people with a high level of education, generally following an offer of better pay or living conditions” (Grubel, 1994)

Local Higher Education - education provided by Ghanaian higher institutions.

Locally Trained Workers – This refers to workers who have graduate degrees from a Ghanaian higher education institution

Foreign Trained Workers – This refers to workers with graduate degrees from typical western universities in the United States, United Kingdom, European Union and Canada.

Lecturer Effectiveness – The ability of the lecturer to successfully produce the desired result as a result of his work performance.

Human Subjects Review Committee – A committee that ensures that field work conforms to the ethical procedures and policies of carrying out a research and protects respondents of field work.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 OVERVIEW AND BACKGROUND

Pascharopoulos and Woodhall (1997) assert that human resources, not physical capital, constitute the basis of what Smith (1776) described as “the wealth of nations.” This deviates somewhat from the preaching of neoclassical economics which emphasizes the importance of physical capital rather than human capital accumulation to real GDP per capita growth at least on the balanced growth path (Harrod, 1939; Domar, 1946; Solow, 1956). The claim is, however, in consonance with endogenous growth theory (Romer, 1986), which endogenizes human capital in the growth equation and identifies same as the channel through which the new technology required for sustainable growth is produced.

Consequently, proponents of human capital theory such as Romer (1990), Grossman and Helpman (1994), Ogunade (2011) and Meisenberg (2014) conclude that enhancing a nation's human capital may result in economic growth by means of technological development and efficient means of production. This view of human capital theory's ability to generate new technology potentially solves the problem of sustained growth in what Easterly (2006) described as “Solow's surprise.”

The growing interest in human capital theory was described by Bowman (1966) as “the human capital revolution in economic thought.” This interest is borne out by the attribution of the rapid growth in South-East Asia, specifically, the ‘Asian Tigers’ to improvement and heavy investment in education (Appleton & Teal, 1998; Armah, 2016a). Even though these ‘Asian Tigers’ have substantial variations in terms of their educational policies according to (Morris, 1996), the rising employment needs in East Asia are being met by the rapidly increasing school systems which have produced a growing supply of well-equipped, disciplined and generally-educated labour (Green, 1997).

According to Peter Materu (2007), due to the belief in the efficacy of human capital to stimulate the kind of new technologies that spur development, tertiary education has become central to economic and political development, as well as improving the competitiveness of a nation in an increasingly globalized knowledge society.

Given the above arguments, it can be conjectured that an effective tertiary education sector can help a country in its development objectives as it will help train the labor force that will in turn generate the necessary technology needed for sustainable growth (Benhabib & Spiegel, 2005). A poor quality tertiary education system will be impotent: forcing an importation of foreign trained lecturers.

This research focuses on Ghana, a country where the tertiary education sector has been recently growing robustly not just in the number of private universities springing up but also in the total number of students being absorbed by both the public and private universities. In Ghana, the second highest growing industry after the banking and financial services sector is the higher education industry (Appiah & McMahon, 2002). The growth in the higher education sector is also evident from the percentage Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER). GER represents the number of individuals who are actually enrolled in schools against the number of children who are of corresponding school enrolment age and are supposed to be enrolled (The World Bank, 2016a). This GER for Ghana with respect to tertiary education of both sexes in Ghana, increased from 5.71% in 2005 to 15.57% in the year 2014. This represents an astonishing 172.77% increase in enrolment over 9 years, that is, an increase of 11.2% compound annual growth rate (CAGR) (The World Bank, 2016a).

Ghana's increasing GER has implications for such phenomena as "brain drain" which has been a problem historically in Ghana. It is especially relevant at this point to

note that in most developing countries, skilled and brilliant minds are lost to the already developed countries through the well documented process of “brain drain.” Brain drain has been fingered as partly the consequence of poor quality of higher education available in developing countries (Zhatkanbaeva, Zhatkanbaeva & Zhatkanbaev, 2012). One of the main causes discovered for “brain drain” continues to be the desire of intellectuals to gain access to quality higher education that they cannot get home (El-Khawas, 2004; Crush & Frayne, 2010; Imran et al., 2011). It is also pertinent to note that brain drain –whether considered in a negative or positive light- is a reality that persists in developing countries over time with potentially significant consequences. This motivates investigating its causes and to minimizing its potential impacts. A focus on evaluating the performance of the local Higher Education system relative to foreign Higher Education systems should provide some information about the actual causes of brain drain.

The vast majority of research available on “brain drain” have been concentrated on quantifying and assessing the extent, effects and impact of brain drain on the country (such as Ghana) losing qualified and well trained people (Docquier & Marfouk, 2005; Awumbila, Manuh, Quartey, Tagoe, & Bosiakoh, 2008; Gibson & McKenzie, 2010; Tessema, 2010; Imran et al, 2011; Okoye, 2016). However, little research has been done to date on whether the HE system in the losing country in the brain drain phenomena is delivering value to its students. For example, does Ghana's higher education system equip the Ghanaian workforce that remain in Ghana with the kind of skills that will enable the institutions in the country to continue functioning effectively in spite of the “brain drain”? In other words is Ghana's tertiary education system adequate in ameliorating the deleterious effects of Ghanaians leaving the shores of Ghana for school and staying overseas to work?

This paper delves into whether local higher education can be considered as a tool in providing human capital capable of achieving national goals and work effectiveness thus, mitigating the negative effects of brain drain. The paper employs an exploratory research design and uses both quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques in gathering needed information. Data is collected from faculty, students and administration personnel of three private universities in order to compare the effectiveness of lecturers who obtained a graduate degree either from a foreign institution or an in-country institution.

1.2 DESCRIPTION OF RESEARCH PROBLEM

The human capital of a country should be provided with the quality education that would enable them to be competitively productive in this ever-increasing global world if economic growth is to be achieved. The education provided should equip the human capital of the nation with skills and knowledge which would serve as a vehicle for technological development and efficient production systems (Benhabib & Spiegel, 2005).

However, in Ghana, it appears as if there is an outflow of potential human capital, and an inflow of foreign human capital who may either not have the context specific skills and knowledge or may be extremely expensive because of the premiums that expatriate scholars attract for working in foreign lands (Wahba, 2015). Thus, the country may not be getting value for money in terms of its employed workforce and may be faced with the problem of not having the qualified citizens needed to spur economic growth. Such a situation which may stem from poor quality of the education given by Ghanaian universities, may result in a dependence of Ghanaian employers on foreign trained workers which could be counter-productive though not necessarily so.

Thus, in focusing on the local higher education and its ability to produce workers whose productivity can be matched to that of workers who have been trained outside, we

may determine whether or not the workers remaining in the country would be able to carry the country forward.

The problem this research seeks to tackle is whether Ghanaian universities are graduating quality human capital who can tackle the national needs, as well as possess the requisite skills relevant to the job market in Ghana in order to facilitate economic growth. This is done, by focussing on the Higher Education sector and comparing the teaching quality and ability to earn promotion in a ten-year period, for both Ghanaian trained workers and foreign trained workers specifically in Ghana's private higher education sector.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- Are foreign trained lecturers working in Ghana's private higher education sector more effective than locally lecturers with regards to research output, teaching quality and ability to earn promotion in a five- year period?
- Can any differences found between the two different workers be tied to their educational background and in particular to whether they were trained abroad?

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

- To determine the comparative differences between foreign trained workers and locally trained worker in Ghana's private higher education sector
- To ascertain whether differences are as a result of country where lecturers obtained their graduate degrees
- To generate policy recommendations for long term economic growth through human capital as per the endogenous growth model.

1.5 RESEARCH RELEVANCE:

The research seeks to investigate if tertiary education obtained in Ghana is good enough to produce graduates that have competitive efficiency comparable to their

compatriots that have received education in foreign countries in the context of the work place. If Ghanaian workers are comparable in effectiveness to foreign trained workers in the educational sector, then it means that the graduate Ghanaian education sector is delivering value to clients. Any employers paying premiums to foreigners based on an incorrect perception that they are more productive than local workers are acting inefficiently and may be encouraging discontent among workers. Since lecturers are vital in enhancing human capital, research on their productivity would provide insight on the state of our human capital development especially in Ghana nascent private HE sector.

Another relevance of the research is that little research has been done to investigate whether expatriates (and foreign trained Ghanaians) contribute substantially to production more than their domestic compatriots in Ghana as a result of their foreign training. Hence, this research paper could throw more light on whether there is an improvement in productivity when foreign trained Ghanaians return to work in Ghana and if that is due to their education outside Ghana. This would be useful in informing the government as to whether or not there is a need for policies that encourage retention of workers in the educational sector of Ghana, mitigating brain drain.

Taking a different approach to analysing brain drain may provide an alternative perspective which would be relevant in an increasingly globalized world. This may inform policy making, that is, instead of spending on mitigating brain drain – which is difficult given the earning potential outside- funds could be spent to prop up Ghanaian HE, equipping and motivating the remaining population to spur economic growth.

This undergraduate thesis adds to the current literature by focusing on the remaining population in the phenomena of “Brain drain” as agents of economic growth regardless of the loss of human capital due to brain drain. Thus, this research is

particularly relevant to policy makers and locally trained workers, in this case Ghanaian trained lecturers who may be systematically underpaid as compared to their foreign trained compatriots due to possible erroneous misconception about their efficacy and contributions. African countries such as Nigeria, facing high rates of “Brain drain” may find the research relevant in understanding how the problem of brain drain can be mitigated against in order to prevent the high rates of brain drain from derailing economic growth.

1.6 JUSTIFICATION

Ghana is a middle-income country with promising prospects and performs well in most Sub-Saharan economic rankings. The country is the 9th richest country in sub-Saharan Africa in 2016 according to World Bank's Doing Business report (World Bank, 2016b). However, a comparison of Ghana's economic performance with countries which were at par with Ghana at independence, such as Botswana and South Korea, in terms of macroeconomic indicators, such as GDP per capita growth, seems to suggest that Ghana is not living up to its potential (Armah, 2016a).

The unfavourable comparison of the Gross Domestic Product of Ghana to Botswana and South Korea from 1990 to 2015 can be observed in Figure 1.0 in the appendix. Thus, as compared to its contemporaries (Botswana and South Korea), Ghana's economic under performance could be due to poor quality, ineffective, or the wrong type of education because of the quality and reach of the educational systems that can be seen in the 2 countries especially in South Korea. In fact, it could be argued that observable differences between Ghana and her contemporaries may be largely explained by the quality of its human capital. Comparison of the tertiary gross enrolment, gender parity index of Ghana, South Korea and Botswana (Refer to Figure 1.1 in Appendix) where Ghana performs worst of the three, seems to, at least, suggest that is the case.

Even though the issue of quality is relevant to both the public and private higher education sector, private institutions were chosen for this research because they tend to employ both foreign trained and locally trained workers. It is also of interest to investigate how effective the lecturers that teach in these relatively younger private universities are. As more and more of the working population are being trained by these institutions their role in producing outputs that have the requisite skills to tackle national needs has become urgent. Private universities were also selected for the research because, potential problems in public schools posed by government such as, interference with hiring of lecturers which may be prevalent in public universities is removed. This provides a more effective analysis of data without such distortions.

Finally, with the entrance of numerous private universities and higher learning institutions comes two dimensions which could affect quality of education provided. Competition could spur these private institutions to provide high quality education and in so doing hire the best lecturers. On the other hand, the obvious and powerful profit incentive could cause these institutions to sacrifice quality for money as they can cut costs by enrolling more students and hiring poorly trained and cheap lecturers because of the strong and inelastic demand for university education (Armah, 2016b). Thus, this sector provides an interesting ground for conducting this research.

Workers in the Ghanaian higher education was chosen because not only does the higher education system employ a very high number of employees with university degrees but the sector is also the second highest growing industry (Appiah & McMahon, 2002). Furthermore, from the endogenous growth model it can be deduced that human capital can be used for two things; it can be used by workers to produce goods, in this case research output; it can be used to produce even more human capital (Jones, 2005). Thus, by assessing the output of workers in the higher education industry both concepts

can be analysed. Lecturers with foreign or in-country Masters Degrees would be included in the study because the investment made in graduate education is high as compared to undergraduate education. This is in relation to the opportunity cost of enrolling in a graduate programme instead of engaging in economic activities especially since they are in their productive years. They are more likely to be gainful employed as compared to students pursuing undergraduate degrees. Thus, a higher rate of return in economic efficiency is expected.

1.7 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This conceptual framework would be applied in the context of private universities in Ghana. The government of Ghana held a near monopoly on Higher Education (HE) in Ghana from independence in 1957 till 1993 when Ghana had only 3 public universities (Sawyer, 2004; Akyeampong, 2010; Atuahene & Owusu-Ansah, 2013). The private sector of higher education in Ghana has grown rapidly since 1993 with the current number of private universities in Ghana being 67ⁱ (NAB, 2016).

Enrolment in private tertiary institutions has also been on the rise. Total enrolment for the undergraduate degree in private tertiary institutions increased from 47180 students in 2010 to 59714 students in 2013 (NAB, 2015). As of 2013, the staffing of private universities included 1797 full-time staff and 1066 part-time staff. Full-time Professors/Associate Professors, Senior Lecturers, Lecturers and Assistant lecturers were 152, 201, 1225 and 219 respectively (NAB, 2015). Part-time Professors/Associate Professors, Senior lecturer, Lecturer and Assistant lecturers were 46, 194, 783 and 43 respectively (NAB, 2015).

The conceptual framework focuses on showing the relationship of how the major components of the study interact with each other. This framework identifies the relevant covariates and takes into consideration the potential interactions between the dependent

and the different independent variables, as well as the individuals who possess the relevant information on the variables. The primary focus of the study is quality of education which is proxied by relevant variables and in particular the country of location of graduate study (foreign trained or locally trained). The output of the graduate education process is proxied by teaching quality, number of publications and career advancement. All of which affect economic growth as included in the framework shown in diagram 1.0.

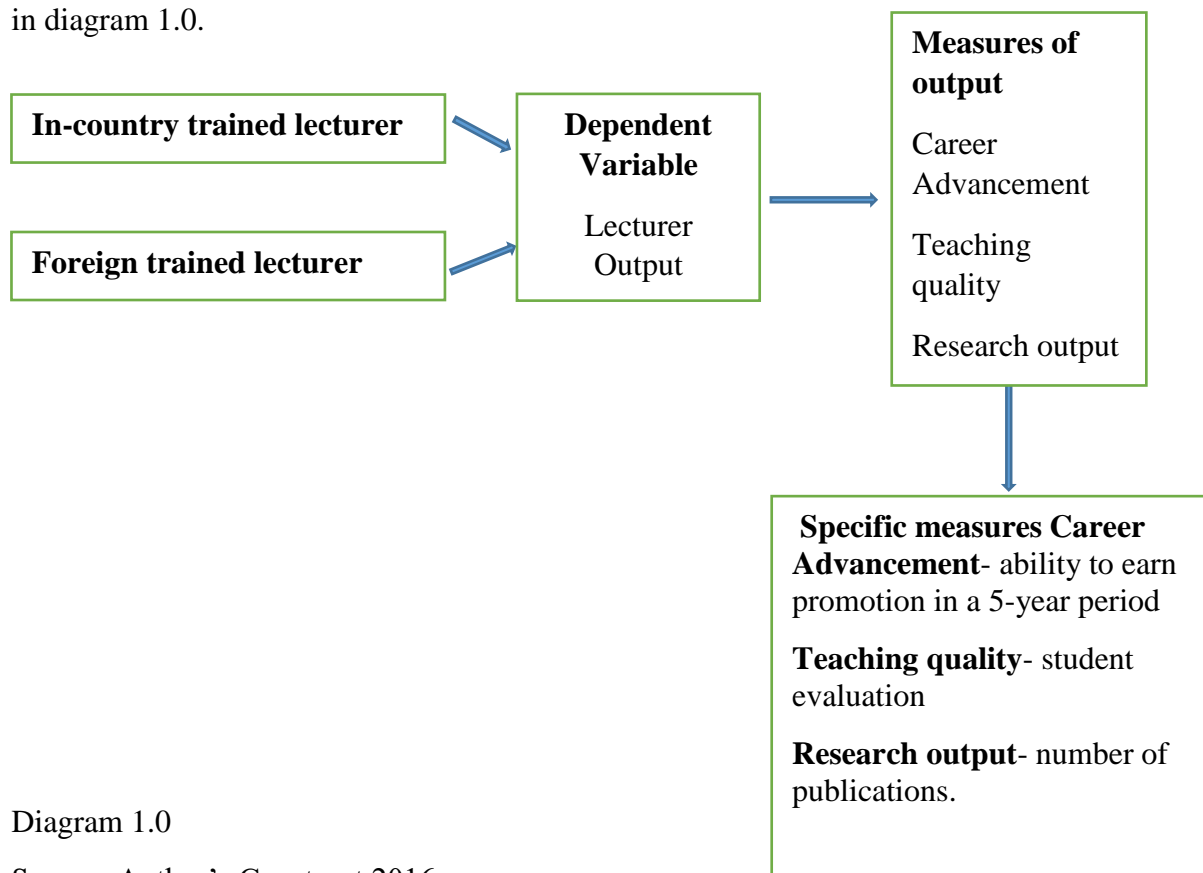


Diagram 1.0

Source: Author's Construct 2016.

The study seeks to ascertain whether foreign trained workers in Ghana's higher education sector are more effective than locally trained workers using predominantly qualitative methods. Thus, the framework establishes that the main participants in the study are foreign trained workers and locally trained workers in higher education in Ghana. Lecturer output which represents the dependent variable in the study would be measured by career advancement, research output measured by the total number of peer-

reviewed publications, and teaching quality. The career advancement would be represented by ability to earn a promotion in a 5-year period while teaching quality would be represented by student evaluations. This implies that the specific way in which lecturer output would be measured is through the specific measures indicated in the conceptual framework.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 OVERVIEW

The type and quality of education provided greatly influences the stock and effectiveness of human capital available for activities which would promote economic growth especially through technological progress (Barro, 2001; Olaniyan & Okemakinde, 2008; Hanushek & Woessmann, 2010; Deku, 2014).

In contrast to the World Bank's historical development policy advice to developing countries to ignore tertiary education and focus on primary education, Bloom, Canning and Chan (2006) support the idea that a country, especially those in developing countries, may close the technological gap and improve efficiency of economic output, through expanding tertiary education. Hence, tertiary education is increasingly gaining status as the engine for the growth of most economies (Gyimah-Brempong et al., 2006; Cloete, 2012; Johansen & Arano, 2016)

The objective of this literature review is to provide a critical evaluation and synthesis of literature related to human capital, higher education and economic growth. This will logically lead to a theoretical framework that will underpin the current study to be conducted, as well as, effectively place the study in context of what others have done.

2.2 HUMAN CAPITAL

Pascharopoulos and Woodhall (1997) explain that "capital and natural resources are passive factors of production, while human beings are active agencies who accumulate capital, exploit natural resources, build social, economic and political organization and carry forward natural development." This kind of assertion in favour of human capital fuelled discussion for or against it.

A vast number of empirical studies using different specifications to determine the relationship between human capital and economic growth have been produced as a result

of human capital theory (Mankiw, Romer & Weil, 1992; Islam 1995; De la Fuente, 2011; Hanushek, 2013; Pelinescu, 2015). Empirical specifications whereby aggregate output of a country at a specific time served as a dependent variable whilst index of technical efficiency, elasticity of output with respect to the stocks of the different factors, that is, physical capital, human capital and labour served as independent variables were commonly used (De la Fuente). An added variable of stochastic disturbance was included as well. Early attempts in this direction, mostly produced positive results that tended to confirm the conventional views of economists of that time regarding the macroeconomic payoff to investment in education (Landau, 1983; Baumol et al., 1989; Barro, 1991; De la Fuente, 2011).

The economic returns which a nation stood to gain with increased stock of human capital was deemed to be in tune with conventional wisdom. However, during the second half of the nineties this conventional wisdom about how human capital and economic growth have a positive relationship was challenged by empirical findings: in particular, research done by Caselli, Esquivel and Lefort (1996), Pritchett (2001) and Pelinescu (2015). Agbor (2011) also defies the conventional wisdom of the positive relationship between human capital and economic growth. In his article, Agbor (2011) highlights the fact that increasing schooling may lead to destabilizing effect on growth as a result of the challenging of cultural and religious ideologies by the educated leading to conflicts.

According to Angel De la Fuente (2011), the negative results found in the second half of the nineties can be explained by technical problems that have a lot to do with the difficulty of measuring human capital correctly. Furthermore, the paper introduces the fact that the wave of negative results on the growth effects of education during the second half of the nineties was related to the use of panel data techniques (De la Fuente, 2011). However, panel data as a result of endogeneity in economic estimation reduces bias due

to the accounting of confounding effect of unobserved, time-invariant country or individual specific factors (Semykina & Wooldridge, 2008). In spite of this, panel data is more susceptible to measurement error as errors tend to be greater in the time-series than in the cross-section dimension (De la Fuente, 2011). This is due to the fact that errors nullify with averages over long periods (De la Fuente, 2011). Data such as the average years of schooling commonly used in most literature contain a lot of noise, and given that it is *ex ante* an imperfect measure of skills, the estimation problem is amplified with panel data.

The emphasis placed on average years of schooling as an imperfect representation of human capital by De la Fuente (2011) influenced the variables chosen to represent human capital in the current study. This was to attain the closest estimation of human capital, thus, produce a more accurate result. In particular since a large number of articles have used average years of schooling, which may cause either specification or measurement error, to depict human capital, this research represents human capital by skills and experience instead of average years of schooling.

The assertion by De la Fuente (2011) that negative results experienced in empirical research of that time was due to measurement issues is supported by a rigorous methodology undertaken by De la Fuente (2011) which enhanced the credibility of the article. The use of improved cross-section data by De la Fuente (2011) as a result of drawing on new primary sources and introducing various corrections to neutralize the effects of changes in classification criteria sought to prove that negative results of previous empirical findings were indeed due to technical and measurement errors. The results of this new methodology, reaffirmed faith in the positive effect that human capital has on economic growth as findings showed a positive relationship.

However, in discussing the contributions of human capital to economic growth, context and situational conditions are important factors that are absolutely necessary to consider. Thus, even though, De la Fuente (2011) found a positive and high return of human capital on economic growth, the data used were OECD countries which could mostly be described as developed countries. Much less is known about the developing country context.

Appleton and Teal (1998) stress that even though Africa has made large strides in raising literacy and school enrolments, these gains are lower than those in other developing countries. For instance, Nigeria has been recorded to have high investments in education, however, economic growth remains far behind those of South Korea and Singapore (Olaniyan & Okemakinde, 2008).

While in the developed countries the race to economic growth has become human capital centred, Appleton and Teal (1998) believe that even though human capital is one factor accounting for differences in growth rates across countries, it is not the most important factor in Africa. A more immediate cause of low economic growth in developing countries is the low level of investment in physical capital (Appleton & Teal, 1998). This low investment in physical capital has repercussions for the rates of return on human capital, particularly education (Appleton & Teal, 1998).

This claim by Appleton and Teal (1998) may be accurate in general, but it seems hard to rectify with the reality that most of the growth in Africa comes from the export of primary products like gold, oil, cocoa and coffee (Deaton, 1999) which are often extracted or produced with low levels of indigenous human capital. This resource-dependent growth of African countries is not sustainable because it is at the whim of commodity prices (Deaton, 1999). This growth strategy is not stable as human capital is

needed to take advantage of and create new technological knowledge and innovation to facilitate a more sustainable economic transformation and diversification involving industrial production. Economic growth backed by robust industrial output and gains from trading will more likely endure (Mathur, 1999). It is instructive to acknowledge here that comparative advantage is dynamic not static and the key to its dynamism is quality human capital. Human capital would be the key to transforming a nation's prospects by transforming comparative advantage to take advantage of higher value added production. Trained labour has the ability to transform raw materials into semi-finished or finished goods which would bring higher revenue inflows.

Mathur (1999), Vijesandiran and Vinayagathan (2015) and Neeliah and Seetanah (2016), establish that a viable and promising long-term strategy for national and regional economic development is the accumulation and promotion of human capital not physical capital accumulation. Even though in the short run increases in physical capital would contribute to economic growth, an investment in physical capital which is subject to diminishing returns would not lead to sustainable growth (Mathur, 1999).

2.3 QUALITY OF EDUCATION AND ECONOMIC GROWTH

In economic development literature, more and more attention has been shifted towards education as a tool for ensuring not just growth, but more importantly, sustainable economic growth (Ashton & Sung, 1997; McMahon, 2007, 2009; Dauda, 2010; Johansen & Arano, 2016). This is partly a result of ongoing globalization and the emergence of the knowledge economy (with associated rapid technological advancement) which has made it essential to invest in human capital especially at the tertiary level in order to develop innovation, foster research and development to yield high technical efficiency (Grossman & Helpman, 1991; Benhabib & Spiegel, 2005).

Nevertheless, “investments in tertiary education were often considered regressive, perpetuating existing social, and economic inequalities.” (Bloom, Canning & Chan, 2006; Pillay, 2011). Not only has education gained popularity in the field of economic development, so has the quality of education offered. Regardless of the fact that a definition of quality of education remains largely elusive (Harvey & Green, 1993 and Armah, 2016b), there is a general agreement that its measurement and maintenance is crucial for any economy (Olaniyan & Okemakinde, 2008; Abukari & Corner, 2010). Thus, the main point of the article by Hanushek and Woessmann (2010) that the quality of education as measured on an outcome basis of cognitive skills, has powerful economic effects is particularly relevant to the discourse.

In agreement with Hanushek and Woessmann (2010), Barro (2001) emphasizes that there is difference between the quantity of education, as measured by years of attainment at various levels, and the quality as measured by gauged by scores on internationally comparable examinations. Barro (2001) used data on students' scores on internationally comparable examinations in science, mathematics, and reading to measure the quality of schooling. Even though, these students' scores were objective, it could not be used on a wide scale since students that took these internationally comparable examinations in Sub-Saharan Africa are not necessarily representative.

Findings by Barro (2001) highlights the fact that quality of education has a higher effect on subsequent growth than quantity of education. According to Hanushek and Woessmann (2010) this critical finding is not included in much of the discussion of development policy today. Education is recognized as important, however, a vast majority of the attention is placed on quantity instead of the quality of learning that is provided. This is relevant because it serves as one of motivations for the undergraduate thesis research. That is, ascertaining whether higher education is delivering value. In

other words, is the HE system delivering effective or quality education to its clients (the graduate students who eventually become lecturers). The findings of the research could have profound policy implications.

In contention to the assertion made by Hanushek and Woessmann (2010), Breton (2011) concludes through empirical findings that quantity instead of quality is associated with economic growth, that is, average schooling attainment has greater statistical significance than average test scores. Breton (2011) argues that a mis-specified model and data from an unsuitable time period was used by Hanushek and Woessmann (2010) in investigating the relationship between schooling and growth rendering their analysis invalid. Therefore, with the claim of using the appropriate data, Breton (2011) finds that across low and middle income countries, aggregate investment in schooling, average number of years of schooling, and quality of education should rise simultaneously.

Bloom, Channing and Chan (2006), assert that the long run steady-state level of African countries' GDP per capita due to factor inputs would be raised by 12.2% owing to a one-year increase in tertiary education stock not necessarily taking quality of education received into account. A revised version of Bloom and Canning's (2006) model of health and economic growth was used in the research with education being substituted for health in the model. An unbalanced panel dataset covering 1960 to 2000 was used. Even though the methodology was rigorous thus ensuring high reliability of the study, it was unclear whether data used represented private or public tertiary institutions and how quality of education would affect the study as a variable in their equations.

This undergraduate thesis, supported by Barro (2001), Hanushek and Woessmann (2010) and Castello-Climent (2010), claims that quality and not just quantity is crucial to creating the needed human capital for economic growth. This is supported by Earle

(2010) who discusses how the quality of the skills graduates bring to their work is more important than simply the number of people in the workforce holding qualifications. In addition, having a more educated workforce enables firms to achieve an advantageous position in terms of economic opportunities and improved performance (Earle, 2010).

It can be concluded that for education to be effective in generating human capital necessary for economic growth it must be of the requisite quality. Although, according to Abukari and Corner (2010), quality is an elusive concept, which has different meanings in different contexts, quality is increasingly being measured as the extent to which core activities generate income and strengthen national economic competitiveness. As such, this research would attempt to measure whether in-country education is graduating competitively quality human capital who can tackle the national needs, as well as, possess the requisite skills relevant to the job market in Ghana in order to minimize brain drain and facilitate economic growth.

2.4 PRIVATE HIGHER EDUCATION IN GHANA

Demand for private higher education in African countries increased on the back of growing demand as a result of population increase, the need for higher degrees in job requirements, globalization and the rise of knowledge economy (Armah, 2016b). On the supply side, pressure on the very few state universities to expand access to tertiary education and the liberalization of the higher education sector on the advice of the World Bank contributed to the proliferation of private higher education in Ghana (Armah, 2016b).

Consequently, the monopoly of the state in Ghana with regards to higher education of the state through, University of Cape Coast, University of Ghana and Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology was disrupted (Varghese, 2004).

Public universities no longer had the capacity to meet the increased demand, thus, bringing about the rise in private universities in Ghana (Palmer, 2005; Utaka, 2008).

According to Sawyer (2004), the three public universities in Ghana had enrolment under 10,000 in 1994. However, by the year 2001, enrolment had risen to 40,673 in the public, and about 2,500 in the private universities (Sawyer, 2004). The inability of the public universities to meet the growing demand was evidenced by the 22, 865 applications received by University of Ghana in 2008 whilst only 8,774 students were enrolled (Boateng, 2014). Evidently, the private universities were needed in order to absorb the growing demand. Thus, private universities have increased the composition and variety of stakeholders involved in higher education (Arthur & Arthur, 2016). In addition, not only have private universities been innovative and developed market driven programmes, but they have also adopted flexible arrangements to meet the needs of various segments of students including workers (Arthur & Arthur, 2016).

Amponsah and Onuoha (2013) attribute the emergence of private universities to Christian missionaries who established private universities for religious and educational reasons among others. According to Utaka (2008), Christians and Islamic organizations are active in creating private higher education in Ghana. Consequently, a great number of private institutions of higher education are sponsored by religious organizations (Varghese, 2004). Hence, potentially absorbing demand and making profit as a result were not the sole reason for the establishment of private universities (Amponsah & Onuoha, 2013).

In Ghana, the liberalization process in higher education was initiated by the University Rationalization Committee (URC) set up in 1987 by the Provisional National Defense Council (PNDC) to reform the tertiary education sector (Utaka, 2008). The URC

carried out a comprehensive review of postsecondary education in the country and came out with detailed proposals designed to restructure the education system (MOE, 2008).

The innovation in higher education in Ghana was the on basis of recommendations provided by the URC (Utaka, 2008). The evolution of private tertiary institutions in Ghana has been likened to developments occurring in other African countries such as Nigeria, Benin and Senegal, Tanzania and Uganda (Varghese, 2004). This growth of private tertiary institutions in Africa is due to the general trend of deregulation in Africa in the wake of a wave of democratisation (Varghese, 2004).

The process in Ghana began when a structure for accrediting private universities was formed in 1993. The PNDC law 319, 1993 established the National Accreditation Board (NAB) and was later reformed by the NAB Act 744, 2007 (Utaka, 2008). In carrying out assessment for the licensing of a private institution to operate, the institution as a whole is evaluated after which each programme is also assessed (Utaka, 2008). Institutional Accreditation for private higher education institutions in Ghana shall not be granted until proof of affiliation is established with the public universities in Ghana (Boateng, 2014). Again, a period of no less than 10 years is required before presidential charter may be processed and a private higher education would have the mandate to issue its own degrees (Boateng, 2014).

The private institutions in Ghana are mostly Ghanaian-owned and managed, however, a few offshore campuses of foreign universities also exist (Boateng, 2014). Most private universities in Ghana employ a limited number of full-time lecturers (Utaka, 2008). They are mostly dependent on part time lecturers, masters-holding assistant lecturers, and lecturers with PhDs (Utaka, 2008). The private institutions fund their operations mainly through student fees (Boateng, 2014). An exception is some private

universities that are owned by religious bodies and/ or other organizations that subsidize them to some degree (Teferra & Knight, 2008).

It is a common practice for private institutions to operate in rented premises which were not designed initially for teaching and which have required hasty alterations to make the premises suitable as places of learning (Utaka, 2008). The programmes offered by these institutions are either based on commercial consideration or a religious orientation (Utaka, 2008). That is, emphasises in terms of courses offered by the private universities in Ghana has been placed on religious and theological studies, business administration and information and communication technology (Teferra & Knight, 2008)

However, with the rapid expansion in private higher education, there are also fears the quality of instruction will be compromised as institutions may want to hire cheap but poorly qualified lecturers to increase the profit potential of their schools (Boateng, 2014; Armah, 2016b). Thus, the current research would add to much needed literature on the quality of lecturers in private higher education in Ghana.

2.5 LITERATURE ON THE COMPARISON OF FOREIGN TO DOMESTIC TRAINED WORKERS

Job performance is viewed as “fundamental or in-role responsibilities that employees are hired to perform in exchange for their compensation packages.” (Rousseau & McLean Parks, 1993). As foreign workers potentially receive less from the organization, due to temporary employment, as well as, no long-term benefits and access to promotion opportunities, Ang, Van Dyne and Bergley (2003), hypothesize that job performance for foreign workers would be lower than domestic workers. This is because it seems reasonable to expect them to contribute less to the organization. Findings of the research discovered that job performance was indeed lower for foreign workers as compared to domestic workers in Singapore (Ang, Van Dyne & Bergley, 2003). This

research acknowledges that foreign trained workers in the Ghanaian context may also be Ghanaian and that the foreign-trained workers in Ghana's HE are very highly qualified so the results found in Singapore by Ang, Van Dyne & Bergley (2003) might not necessarily hold in Ghana. In particular, foreign lecturers in Ghanaian universities are given local contracts and paid as nationals (Teferra & Knight, 2008). Thus, the reason for the reported low job performance found by Ang, Van Dyne and Bergley (2003) is not necessarily expected to apply to foreign workers in Ghanaian universities. Hence, they could even be expected to have a higher job performance given higher human capital in terms of average years of schooling and experience. Ang, Van Dyne and Begley (2003) also took into consideration the fact that most of the foreign workers had higher educational backgrounds but due to factors such as work perception, attitudes and behaviours, ended up with lower work performance as opposed to domestic workers. This phenomenon was found to be accentuated for those in jobs with high task interdependence.

Competition from foreign lecturers have led to an increase in work quality created by the local lecturers and improvement in the quality of student performance in Malaysia (Hoque, Alam, Shamsudin, Akbar, Moktharuddin & Fong, 2010). This is as a result of the impact of the foreign lecturers' experience and knowledge (Hoque et al., 2010). Hoque et al (2010) concluded that foreign lecturers had higher ratings in terms of research output. However, this disparity between foreign and local lecturers has led to the increase in demand for research and the writing of internationally recognised papers among foreign and locally trained lecturers (Hoque et al., 2010).

Zikovic, Salatian, Ademoh and Shanan (2013) while investigating the perceptions of students in an American-style university in Nigeria, found that for each criteria the students evaluated their American expatriate lecturers better than their Nigerian

counterparts who were trained in Nigeria. Zikovic et al (2013) with the use of student evaluations assessed specific indicators such as organization, clarity and content. Within each indicator, specific variables were evaluated (Zikovic et al., 2013). Even though student evaluations are deemed too subjective for important decisions (Franklin, 2001), they represent a tool that is commonly used to measure teaching quality (Wright, 2006) and are subsequently the preferred way to obtain the perceptions of students about their lecturers (Zikovic et al., 2013). Hence, the current study would also attempt to use student evaluations in assessing teaching quality of foreign trained lecturers to locally trained lecturers.

On the other hand, findings by Hoque et al (2010) in relation to teaching quality from student respondents revealed that local lecturers were rated higher in the courses that were taught by both local and international lecturers. Thus, it could be inferred that context specific skills are also relevant in the perception of teaching quality by students as the Malaysian students complained that they were unable to understand the subject matter due to the method of delivery (Hoque et al., 2010).

2.6 CUSTOMER VALUE: APPLICATION TO HIGHER EDUCATION

Higher education forms a part of service industry as the primary focus of tertiary institutions, is to provide quality learning experiences to students, which could be considered as a service. Thus, understanding quality from the customers' viewpoint has become crucial (Lagrosen, 2001) with customers referring to all those who are influenced by the organisation's activities (Juran, 1988). In the context of higher education, these customers include funding bodies and community at large, students, staff and employers of graduates (Srikanthan & Dalrymple, 2003).

The current improvement and changes in higher education in the form of options available to students internationally, as well as, the use of virtual technology to deliver

courses, has led to intense competition, hence, forcing universities to create unique learning experiences to students so as to capture the market share (Gapp & Fisher, 2006; O'Neill & Palmer, 2004). Therefore, delivering value to customers has become an integral part of higher education when it previously was not, as the notion of having customers, is often seen as pertaining to commercial activities (Lagrosen, Seyyed-Hashemi & Leitner, 2004).

Harvey and Green (1993) propose five interrelated ways of explaining quality in the context of higher education, that is, quality regarded in terms of excellence; quality as the perfect attainment of processes and specifications aimed for; quality as fitness for purpose; quality as value for money and finally quality as a process that brings about a qualitative change. With regards to student as the customers, the most important dimension of quality is that of quality in terms of excellence (Srikanthan & Dalrymple, 2003; Lagrosen, Seyyed-Hashemi & Leitner, 2004). Thus, in order to be considered as delivering value to students, a higher education should be regarded as exceptional, that is, high standards of academic achievements are exceeded (Harvey & Green, 1993). According to Harvey (1999) quality in this approach is achieved if the standards are distinguished.

Learning outcomes are essential to a meaningful learning experience, as such focusing on learning outcomes is needed in order to measure and advance teaching processes and student learning if high standards are to be maintained (Seniwoliba, 2014). Consequently, emphasis on learning outcomes has become more important in recent years (Seniwoliba, 2014). This importance attached to learning outcomes has led to the development of various comparative measures aimed at measuring the achievement of these outcomes such that academic excellence of graduates is ensured. (Seniwoliba, 2014). Therefore, achievements of these learning outcomes when measured could be used

as a tool to ascertain if value is being delivered to students or not. In agreement with this, Schleicher (2015), stresses that there can be no shortcut to measuring the quality of higher education that bypasses students and student learning outcomes.

In attempt to capture a Ghanaian perspective, (Seniwoliba, 2014), found that for University of Development Studies, the internal measures which determine whether value is being delivered were student admissions, quality teaching and learning, quality graduate output, as well as, appointments and promotions. The current study also tries to ascertain whether value is being delivered by assessing teaching quality and the ability to earn a promotion within a 5-year period.

According to Hemmings and Kay (2009), research, teaching and service are the common areas through which the work performed by lecturers are conceptualised within higher education. Since, these lecturers are crucial to the customer experience of students, it is relevant to understand how their contributions are measured. According to Olatokunbo (2013), universities, and in effect lecturers, contribute greatly to the growth and development of the economy, that is industries and government businesses, through research carried out. In addition, research is seen to promote quality of teaching of lecturers as it reinforces skills which are requisite for effective teaching (Lertputtarak 2008). Hence, research is seen as an important element in assessing the contribution of lecturers to value delivery of a higher education institution (Olatokundo, 2013). Furthermore, most academic institutions' reward system such as promotion is based on quantity and quality of research output (Volkwein and Carbone, 1994; Akuegwu et al., 2006; Olatokundo, 2013).

Research publication in higher education institutions is a major indicator of academic staff productivity (Usang, Akuegwu, Udida & Udey, 2007). Castells (2001)

highlights that although there has been a vibrant research function in mostly Europe and North America, this not so for Africa. Accordingly, the research function of producing new knowledge is under-developed, and where it has developed, senior academics in a few selected university faculties are responsible for the development (Castells, 2001). For that reason, the intensity of academic research, as well as, output in sub-Saharan African higher institutions trails that of the rest of the world (Castells, 2001). This research recognized the relatively underdeveloped research culture in the African context and indeed in Ghana and accounted for it in defining operational variables.

The variables which would be used in the current research as informed by Seniwoliba (2014), would be research output, ability to earn promotion in a 5-year period, as well as, teaching quality. As stated by Volkwein and Carbone (1994), Akuegwu et al (2006), Olatokundo (2013), research output is a significant criterion if not the main criteria used in promotion of lecturers. Therefore, in the current study particular attention would be placed on research output, as well as, factors that affect the rate of research output.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1 OVERVIEW OF THE METHOD SECTION

The study seeks to investigate whether Ghana's private higher educational sector is delivering value to graduate students. Specifically, the study wants to determine if the quality of tertiary education given in Ghana by Ghanaian universities is comparable to the education provided by foreign institutions in the United States, European Union, United Kingdom and Canada in the context of Ghana's private university system. Since Ghanaian students complain that there is preference in the workforce for foreign trained workers, such a research is clearly important to either undermine or validate such a preference for foreign trained workers.

This study recognizes that the use of the higher education (HE) sector presents unique challenges as the workers within the higher education sector simultaneously serve as both the input and output of the research subject. That is, lecturers on one hand serve as an input in producing human capital since they are in charge of imparting knowledge and helping students synthesize ideas. On the other hand, lecturers are also human capital on their own since they are the output of an investment in self-development through the education they received in the HE system. The research therefore carefully defined operational variables in the conceptual framework already discussed in chapter 2.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is "a blueprint for conducting a study with maximum control over factors that may interfere with the validity of the findings" (Burns & Grove, 2003). A research design may also be defined as "a plan that describes how, when and where data are to be collected and analysed" (Parahoo, 1997). The research design for the current study is exploratory in nature. Exploratory research is a single research investigation or a series of informal studies intended to provide background information, clarify or to define a problem (Manerikar & Manerikar, 2014). The current research is

exploratory because the problem is clearly difficult to precisely define and variables that are measured with numerical data are hard to find, making analysis challenging and validating the choice of exploratory research. The principal objective of undergraduate thesis is, not meant to provide conclusive quantitative evidence; hence, further research is required. The design is also descriptive in that it provides useful insights into the operation of Ghana's Higher Private Education System.

This research collected both quantitative and qualitative data and takes the dynamic of lecturers as human capital on their own into consideration. The methodology is mixed (partly qualitative and partly quantitative). Partially quantitative because it seeks to generate numerical data in order to conduct descriptive analysis. The methodology is also partially qualitative because interviews were conducted to understand how people interpret their experiences (Creswell, 1994). This is done to ascertain in depth information which may provide valuable information on what accounts for differences in lecturer output if any, as well as, perception that may affect the interpretation of findings.

The dependent variable which is lecturer output is measured by research output, ability to earn promotion in a five-year period and teaching quality whilst the independent variable is quality of education received proxied by country where degree was obtained. Research output is a ratio variable. The ability to earn promotion in a five-year period is also a ratio variable since a true zero can be defined whilst teaching quality is an interval variable since the score assigned to the various rating creates a clear interval between values but a teaching quality score of zero may be elusive (Sall, Lehman & Creighton, 2001).

The research instruments used include questionnaires and interviews. Some of the questionnaires were self-administered while others were administered online. Teaching

quality is assessed using an adapted course experience questionnaire (Ramsden, 1991) in order to reflect the information needed for the research (Refer to Table 1.0). Student evaluations are the commonest tool used to evaluating teaching quality (Centra, 1979; Seldin, 1999; Wright, 2006). Danielson and McGreal (2000) recommend that evaluation forms should measure factors which affect students learning such as delivery strategies, professional behaviours and instruction of content knowledge.

Secondary data from both internet sources and library resources are used to support the data obtained from questionnaires. The secondary data analysed was mainly in the form of published articles by participants.

3.3 RESEARCH SCOPE

3.3.1 Study Population

The total population for the research include all higher educational institutions within Greater Accra Region. The sub-population is used in the research is all private higher educational institutions in Greater Accra Region. A list of the 39 NAB accredited private universities can be found in the Appendix (Table 1.1).

3.3.2 Study Area

The scope of the research geographically is limited to the Greater Accra due to budgetary and time constraints since the research was carried out during an academic year at Ashesi University College.

3.4 SAMPLING STRATEGY

The sample is drawn from three private universities within the Greater Accra region. For each of these three private universities, two long serving faculty members from one department (the Business Administration Department) were included in the study. The Business Administration Department was chosen since it was common to all the three institutions. One of these faculty members selected was in-country trained and

the other was foreign trained. The same department was sampled in each of the three private universities.

3.4.1 Sampling Techniques

Purposive sampling was used to select the three private universities used in the study. This is because the private universities chosen have to fit the category of being in Greater Accra region, as well as, having the same department needed for the study.

Purposive sampling is selecting a sample “on the basis of your own knowledge of the population, its elements, and the nature of your research aims” (Rubin & Babbie, 1997). That is, purposive sampling is a sequence of deliberate choices about whom, where, and how one would conduct the research (Palys, 2008).

Purposive sampling was used to collect information from both the lecturers and the students. Purposive sampling technique was used in an effort to gain representative samples, that is, respondents with particular characteristics. That is, long serving lecturers within a particular department, as well as, students who are taught directly by the lecturers included in the study.

3.4.2 Sample sizes

Within the sub-population of the private university system in the Greater Accra region of Ghana, a sample size of three private educational institutions was used. Within the three private higher educational institutions, two lecturers were used as participants, that is, the two lecturers were evaluated using the criteria of research output, ability to earn promotion in a 5-year period and teaching quality. One of the participants per institution was locally trained and the one was foreign trained. A sample of 120 students of the respective lecturers were used with respect to the evaluative criteria of teaching quality in the three institutions. Given that the study is a case study, the sample size was representative for the institutions.

3.5 DATA COLLECTION

The data was collected through an internet-administered survey as well as, physical delivery and self-administering. The Human Resource Department of each institution was contacted in order to obtain permission. The department was thoroughly briefed about the research and their help sought to choose the right lecturers who would provide the right information. This was done over a period of two months.

3.5.1 Data preparation, collation and processing

A pilot test was conducted in order to ensure that the right data was being collected before the questionnaires was administered to the participants of the study. The data obtained from the actual field work was collated by coding the responses into excel. The audio recordings of interviews were transcribed into a Microsoft-Word document.

3.6 DATA ANALYSIS

Data was collected through interviews with the lecturers, Heads of Department and Human Resource department of the three institutions to obtain information about the evaluative criteria of research output and the ability to earn a promotion in a 5-year period. This was transcribed into a Microsoft-Word document and analysed using structural coding and pattern coding. That is, content analysis was used in analysing the data collected through interviews. "Content analysis involves coding and classifying data, also referred to as categorising and indexing used in the analyses of the responses received from the interviews" (Libweb, 2016).

A colour-coding system to identify text about the different themes, grouping together ideas and gathering evidence about views on each theme was adopted. The data was presented in both a narrative and thematic format.

The data on the evaluative criteria of teaching quality was mainly collected through questionnaires administered to the students of the respective lecturers. This was

coded into Microsoft-Excel. Descriptive analysis in the form of graphs and charts was done in order to graphically illustrate the pertinent information from the data collected. Again, frequencies, percentages and modes were calculated for each Likert scale item used in the questionnaire.

3.7 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Reliability can be referred to as the consistency of measurement (Bollen, 1989). It can also be defined as “stability of measurement over a variety of conditions in which basically the same results should be obtained” (Nunnally, 1978).

Validity on the other hand deals with the relevance of research elements (Drost, 2011). In other words, validity concerns the accurate measurement of what the research intends to measure. Validity has to do with the minimization of bias and the ability to obtain correct results.

The reliability of a study can be improved through writing clearly, making test instructions easily understandable, and training the respondents effectively by making the rules for scoring as explicit as possible (Nunnally, 1978). Reliability was ensured as the questionnaire were standardised for every individual interviewed.

Face validity of questionnaires was ensured through pilot testing of the questionnaire before administering them to the target participants. This was to test whether to a layperson, the variables and data collection method will measure what it is intended to measure.

3.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

Confidentiality of the research is guaranteed since the personal information of the participants were omitted from the research paper. Informed consent was also sought. Participant were given the chance to discontinue from the study at any moment. In addition, results of the study are made available to participants upon request. All

questionnaire and procedures which involved human subjects was submitted to the Ashesi University College's Human Subjects Review Committee for approval before being administered to any participant.

3.9 LIMITATIONS

The limitations that was encountered in the course of the research was the fact that the sample may not be representative given the unique characteristics of each of Higher Education institutions sampled. Therefore, results obtained from this research may not be appropriate for making general inferences about the entire population. Some institutions also refused to be a part of the study as they feared that the study might reveal sensitive information about their institutions or give valuable information to competitors. In addition, some institutions had bureaucratic constraints which made it impossible to include them in the sample and still complete the study in a timely manner.

Obtaining current literature presented difficulties, thus, background information is skewed towards historic information. Finally, budgetary and monetary constraints also limited the amount of data collected and the level of analysis conducted on the data.

CHAPTER 4: ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the result of analysis of data collected to answer the relevant research questions from three private universities that offer Business Administration in Accra; Ghana's political and commercial capital. Data collected through interviews and a course experience questionnaire were processed in relation to the problem of whether local higher education can be considered as a tool in providing human capital capable of achieving national goals and work effectiveness thus, mitigating the negative effects of brain drain.

The two research principal research questions that informed the data collection and analysis process: (i) are foreign trained lecturers working in Ghana's private higher education sector more effective than locally lecturers with regards to teaching quality and ability to earn promotion in a 5-year period? (ii) Can any differences found between the two different groups of lecturers be tied to their educational background and in particular to whether they were trained locally (in Ghana) or abroad?

Findings for each of the two research questions are presented respectively for each university. Results germane to answering the first research question are discussed under the following categories: teaching quality, research output and ability to earn promotion in a 5-year period. In like manner, results pertinent to the second research question are segmented into institutional and macro-environment related results. This is followed by the discussion of each of the relevant findings.

4.2 RESPONSE RATE

For each institution, 6 lecturers were interviewed. Three of these lecturers were foreign trained while the other three were locally trained. 2 heads of departments and a Human Resource department head were also interviewed. One hundred and fifty questionnaires were initially sent out to students of the six lecturers that were

interviewed. Out of the 150 questionnaires sent out, 131 questionnaires were completed and returned.

150 questionnaires were sent out because the average class size ascertained from the interviews with the lecturers revealed that the average class size was only 25. Therefore, for the 6 lecturers interviewed, the maximum number of students would be 150 students. In addition, given a margin of error of 8% and an estimated population of 800 business administration students in the three institutions, the recommended sample size was 158. Therefore, 150 students were chosen as the sample size since the class sizes limited the recommended number of students, that is, 158 students who could be used as a sample. However, 16 of the 131 questionnaires received were found to be incompletely filled, especially on critical aspects of the questionnaire.

3 responses out of the 131 questionnaires were of lecturers who were not part of the study, thus, they were considered as unusable. The intended number of student respondents was 25 per lecturer. However, due to the factors listed earlier, there was an uneven number of respondents per lecturer. In Institution A, both the locally and foreign trained lecturers had 25 respondents each. The locally trained lecturer in Institution B had 19 respondents whilst the foreign trained lecturer had 16 respondents. For Institution C, the respondents for the locally trained lecturer were 17 and that of the foreign trained lecturer was 18. Therefore, the number of questionnaires used in the data analysis of this study was 120 questionnaires from three private institutions in Greater Accra. With 120 usable questionnaires, out of 150 issued questionnaires, the response rate was 80%.

4.3 DIFFERENCES IN EFFECTIVENESS OF LOCALLY AND FOREIGN TRAINED LECTURERS

It is vital to investigate if there are any differences between lecturers trained in Ghana and those trained abroad in order to determine whether the higher educational

sector in Ghana is providing a comparatively higher quality of education for its clients, namely, the graduate students or if in fact the reverse is true. The comparative differences were analysed for each institution under the categories of research output, teaching quality and ability to earn promotion in a 5-year period.

4.3.1. Research output for Institution A

A difference was found between the research output of the foreign trained lecturer and the locally trained lecturer. This was true despite the fact that they had all been teaching for about 3 years and had taught about 4 classes each. Using the measure of number of publication as a proxy for effectiveness of research output by the foreign and locally trained worker, it was revealed that the foreign trained lecturer was more productive in research output. The foreign trained lecturer had three peer reviewed publications and two conference papers. The locally trained lecturer had no publications and no conference papers.

There were also observed differences in the effectiveness of foreign and locally trained lecturers in terms of how the various elements that is literature review, methodology and data analysis were carried out. According to the foreign trained lecturer, he “.....believed he was better at literature review because he was trained in a system where when you need the information you can get it. Where you can sit at one place and do so many things.” So he had honed his skills on how to find relevant information. In contrast, the locally trained lecturer felt handicapped with relation to literature review. According to him “talk of the journals, even UCC a renowned institution... they can't subscribe to most of the journals so if you want articles you have to pay for them yourself”. In his view, this issue hindered his skill development in literature review.

“Foreign trained lecturers are more proficient in research output. What we do here at our undergraduate level, I don't call it research” (Head of Department, Personal

Communication, March 7, 2017). Differences in effectiveness of foreign and locally trained lecturers taking research into consideration seems largely due to the type of education received. This would be further discussed in chapter 4.6

4.3.2 Teaching Quality

According to Hanushek (2002), differences in teaching ability have by far [the greatest impact] on student performance. Again, teaching quality can simply be defined as: “good teachers are ones who get large gains in student achievements for their classes; bad teachers are just the opposite” (Hanushek, 2002). In this research however, teaching quality is gauged by the subjective of students and heads of departments.

In determining the differences in teaching quality between locally and foreign trained lecturers, a survey which was adopted from the course experience questionnaire developed by Ramsden (1992) was used to elicit information from respondents. The locally and foreign trained lecturers were assessed on their teaching skills, ability to set clear goals and standards, appropriate workload, skills development and finally academic environment created by the lecturer. Under each category, a number of items were assessed based on the scale of strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree. This was coded with strongly agree being assigned a score of 100, agree being 50, neutral being equal to 0, disagree being -50 and strongly disagree being -100 and the reverse for question which had negative connotations. Hence, the data collected was considered as an interval data. Where interval data implies that distance between values is interpretable (Trochim, 2006). The data was considered an interval data because the scores assigned to the responses had an equal distance of 50 and this distance was meaningful such that a lecturer who was rated strongly agree was 50 points better than the lecturer who was rated agree with respect to the Likert items.

Under the category of teaching skills, the foreign trained worker was rated as being more effective than the locally trained worker. Nevertheless, both lecturers were rated highly by the respondents. 32.5% of the students of the locally trained lecturer strongly agreed with the items which sought to indicate good teaching skills, 50% agreed and 17.5% were neutral. On the other hand, 71% of the students of the foreign trained lecturer strongly agreed that he possessed good teaching skills, 25% agreed and 3.3% were neutral.

Figure 1.2: Teaching Skills of Locally and Foreign Trained Lecturers

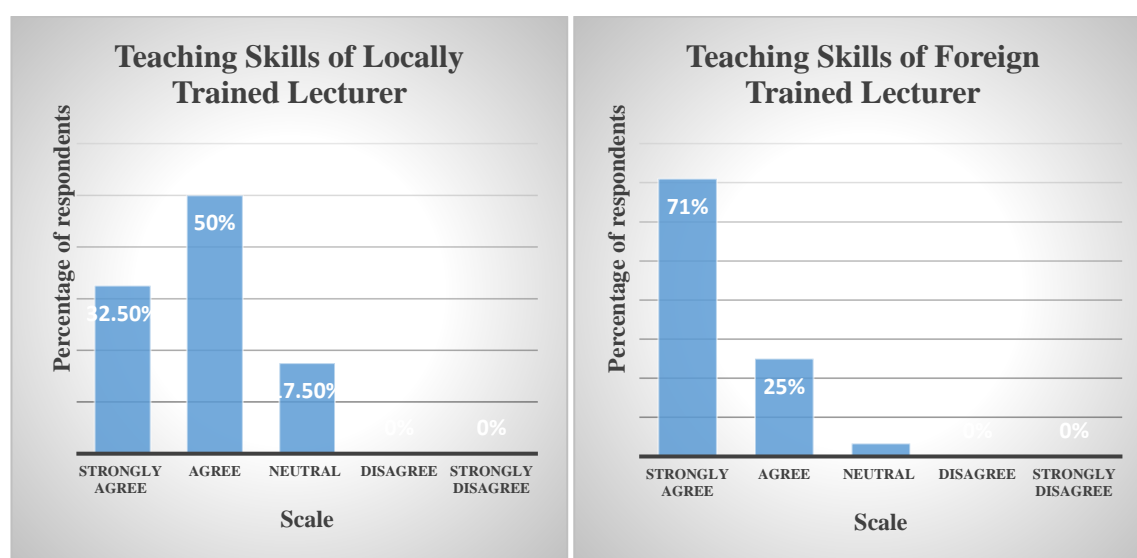


Figure 1.2: A graph showing the percentage of respondents who strongly agree, agree, are neutral, disagree and strongly disagree with the good teaching skills of the locally trained lecturer and the foreign trained lecturer.

Data Source: Field data

The student rating of the locally trained lecturer with respect to his ability to set clear goals and standards indicated that 12.5% strongly agreed that the lecturer set clear goals and standards, 52.5% agreed, 16.3% were neutral, 16.3% disagreed and 2.5% strongly disagreed. Conversely, the student rating of the foreign trained lecturer showed that 35% strongly agreed that the lecturer had clear goal setting and standards, 46.7% agreed, 6.7% were neutral, 6.7% disagreed and 5% strongly disagreed.

Figure 1.3: Ability to Set Clear Goals and Standards

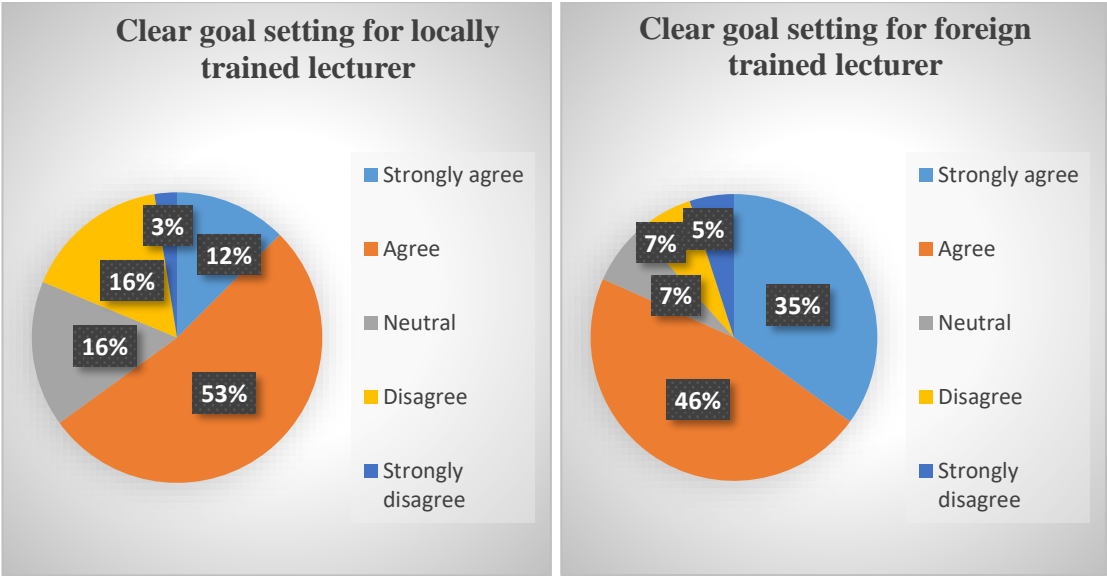


Figure 1.3: A pie chart showing the share of respondents with respect to the five rating scale for the foreign and locally trained lecturer under the category of clear goal and standard setting.

Data Source: Field data

With respect to appropriate workload, 8.3% of the respondents strongly agreed that the workload assigned by the locally trained lecturer was appropriate, 38.3% agreed, 38.3% were neutral, 8.3% disagreed and 6.7% strongly agreed. However, for the foreign trained lecturer, 22.2% of the students of the foreign trained lecturer strongly agreed to the appropriateness of the workload, 42.2% agreed, 8.9% were neutral, 17.8% disagreed and 8.9% strongly disagreed.

Figure 1.4: Appropriateness of Workload Apportioned to Students

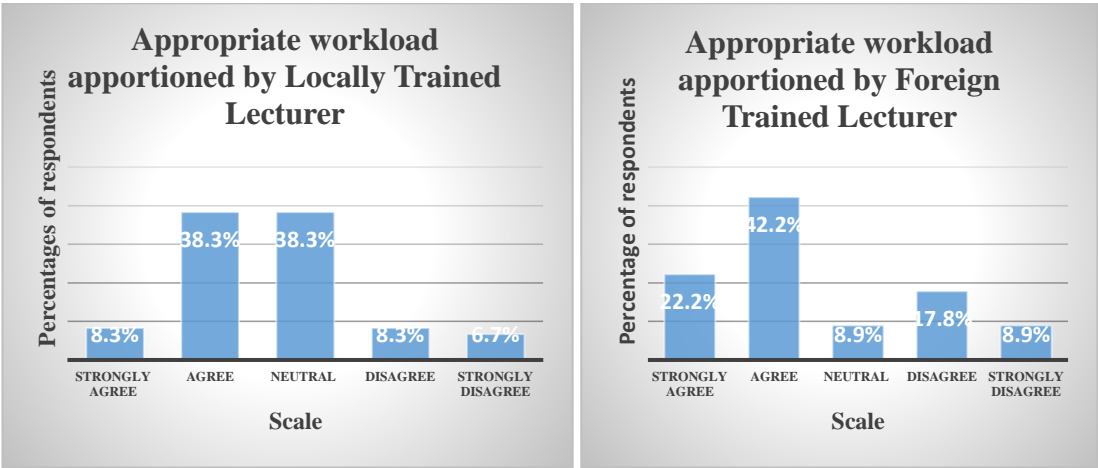


Figure 1.4: A graph that shows the percentage of students within the various rating scales, that is strongly agree to strongly disagree, for the foreign and locally trained lecturer in Institution A for the category of appropriate workload apportioned to students.

Data Source: Field data

As table 1.1 below shows, for the locally trained lecturer, 16.7% strongly agree, 21.7% agree, 58.30% were neutral, 3.3% disagree to the fact that the lecturer was good at developing their skills. Considering strongly agree, agree and neutral as acceptance and disagree and strongly disagree as rejection, 96.70% accepted that the locally trained lecturer helped them to improve their skills whilst 3.3% rejected that notion. For the foreign trained lecturer, 37.8% strongly agreed, 37.8% agreed, 6.7% were neutral, 13.3% disagreed and 4.4% strongly disagreed that the lecturer helped them to improve their skills. 82.3% of the respondents of the foreign trained lecturer accepted that their skills were developed by the lecturer and 17.70 rejected this notion.

In addition, the individual items under the category of skills development that is; the instructor seems more interested in testing what I have memorised than what I have understood; instructor asks me questions just about facts; feedback on my work is usually provided only in the form of marks and grades were assessed to find the modal scale. With this category, a modal score of 100 implies that students strong disagreed with the above listed Likert items and consequently a modal score of -100 implies that the students strongly agree with the Likert items.

Table 1.1: Skill Development Ability of the Lecturers

	Skill Development	
	Locally Trained Lecturer	Foreign Trained Lecturer
Strongly Agree	16.70%	37.80%
Agree	21.70%	37.80%
Neutral	58.30%	6.70%
Disagree	3.30%	13.30%
Strongly Disagree	0%	4.40%
Percentage Agreement		
Accept	96.70%	82.30%
Reject	3.30%	17.70%
Mode		
The instructor seems more interested in testing what I have memorised than what I have understood	50	50
Instructor asks me questions just about facts	0	100
Feedback on my work is usually provided only in the form of marks and grades	0	100

Table 1.1: A table summarising the percentage of respondents per the rating scale, percentage agreement and mode of the three Likert items under the category of skill developments for foreign trained and locally trained lecturers.

Data Source: Field data

The rating of academic environment for the locally trained lecturer and the foreign trained lecturer revealed that there were significant differences between the two lecturers. 11.3% strongly agreed that the locally trained lecturer created a conducive academic environment, that is, he created an environment which encouraged intellectual stimulation, 27.4% agreed and 61.3% were neutral. On the other hand, for foreign trained lecturer, 36.7% strongly agreed that the lecturer created a good academic environment, 50% agreed and 13.3% were neutral.

Figure 1.6: Ability to Create Conducive Academic Environment

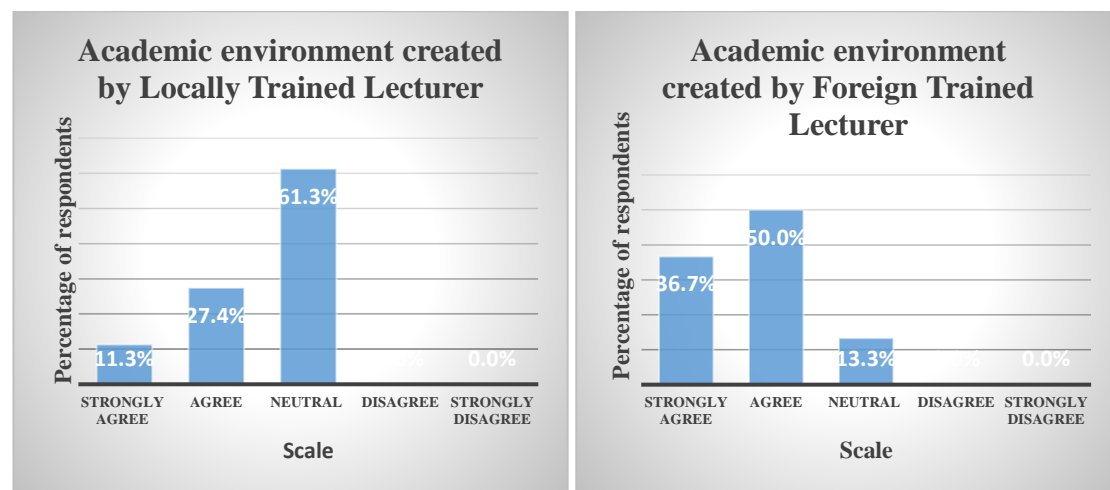


Figure 1.6: A relationship graph between foreign and locally trained lecturers in terms of the percentage of respondents who strongly agree, agree, are neutral, disagree or strongly disagree to their ability to create a conducive academic environment.

Data Source: Field data

The head of department also revealed that when it comes to quality of teaching

“The biggest difference amongst the two groups is the presentation of materials, that is, the way you present your knowledge. Locally trained lecturers just run through, just going in a sequential manner. The locally trained are too concerned with theory. I remember learning about computers but I had never seen a computer. They teach a lot of theory but foreign trained lecturers on the hand would put you behind a computer. Also, in terms of interactions, foreign trained workers are more open with their students and are not fixated on maintaining power distance or asserting authority that is also a major difference.”

The general perception observed in Institution A was that the foreign trained lecturer was considered as being more practical than his locally trained counterpart “Because they have been exposed, that is they have been exposed to so much technology. So when they come in they impart that knowledge to their students.” (Head of Department)

4.3.3 Ability to earn promotion in a 5-year period

“In the university if you don’t publish you perish. For any of the institutions research output is a major basis for promotion because all your work has to be research based” (Head of Department). In Institution A, research output was named as the major criteria for awarding promotions. Hence, the ability to earn a promotion in a 5-year period had a strong positive relationship with the level of research output or the perception of research proficiency. In addition to the research output of lecturers, their attitude towards work such as punctuality and the depth of presentation, that is, the way the lecturer

presents the materials to the student were also named as important criteria used in granting promotion.

“Those with foreign training have quicker rate of promotion. This is because we look at quality not only the knowledge. The knowledge is usually the same. Anybody hiring a foreign trained worker has that perception that they have that high calibre or high respect for them so on average the promotions come like every 3 years.” (Head of Department). The observation in Institution A was that foreign trained lecturers had a higher likelihood to earn a promotion in a 5-year period. This is because as established in chapter 4.2.1 and 4.2.2 they were viewed as being more effective in research output and method of presenting their material which are two major criteria for awarding promotions. “In terms of academia, foreign trained workers take about three years as opposed to the five or seven years of the Ghanaian trained lecturers to publish and get promoted.” (Head of Department).

4.3.4 Research output for Institution B

Similar to findings for Institution A, the foreign trained lecturer was more effective in terms of research output as measured by number of publications, the foreign trained was more effective than the locally trained lecturer. The foreign trained lecturer had three conference papers as compared to the two conference papers of the locally trained lecturer. In addition, the locally trained lecturer had been lecturing for 13 years as opposed to the 3 years of the foreign trained lecturer, thus, according to the Head of Department was expected to have more publications.

However, in the view of the locally trained lecturer he was more effective at research than his foreign trained counterpart because “.... the research they were supposed to undertake as lecturers has to be based on the problems in

the country of their respective institutions. Therefore, they would not get the real situation on the ground in Ghana and consequently conduct good research. Hence, the locally trained lecturers have an advantage in quality of research output."

As per the statement it can be inferred that the locally trained lecturer was of the perception that since foreign trained lecturers undertook their graduate degrees in other countries and also developed their research skills in those countries, they were out of touch with the reality in Ghana. Therefore, the research undertaken by foreign trained lecturers would be devoid of contextual understanding, thus making the findings of the foreign trained lecturer less relevant as opposed to the locally trained lecturer with contextual understanding of Ghana.

The dimension this revealed according to the locally trained lecturer was that even though the number of publications may be higher for the foreign trained lecturer, the quality of those publications may be inferior to that of the locally trained lecturer. That is, quality of research in terms of its usefulness to the country.

The Head of Department was however of the view that "Foreign trained lecturers are better because the work they did in their masters' courses are more rigorous. In terms of quality, the foreign trained are much better because they are more knowledgeable and are stronger academically and this same applies to their respective research output as well."

4.3.5 Teaching quality

Under good teaching skills, the foreign trained lecturer had 52.5% of his students strongly agreeing to the assertion that he had good teaching skills as per the

answers in the Likert Scale. This was higher than that of the locally trained lecturer who had 41.7% of his students strongly agreeing to the strength of his teaching skills. Again, 0% of the students of the foreign trained lecturer strongly disagreed with the assertion that the lecturer had good teaching skills on the contrary the locally trained lecturer had 6.3% of his students strongly disagreeing with the assertion that he had good teaching skills. However, 12.5 % of both the respondents of the locally trained and the foreign trained lecturer were neutral as to whether their respective lecturers had good teaching skills

Figure 1.7: Teaching Skills of Locally and Foreign Trained Lecturers

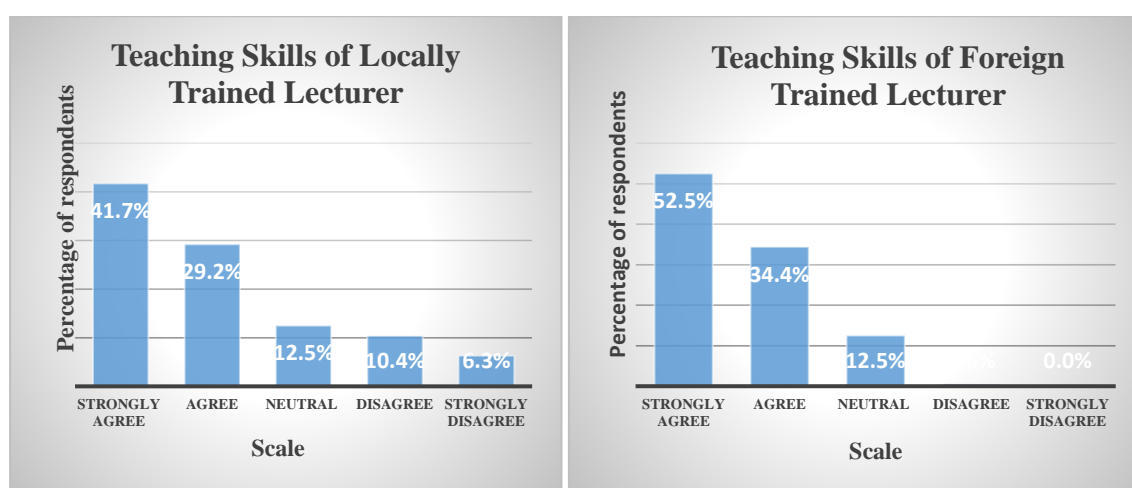


Figure 1.7: A graph showing the percentage of respondents who strongly agree, agree, are neutral, disagree and strongly disagree with the good teaching skills of the locally trained lecturer and the foreign trained lecturer.

Data Source: Field data

As can be seen in figure 1.8 below, 37.5% of the respondents of the locally trained lecturer strongly agreed that the lecturer sets clear goals and standards, 35.4% agreed, 12.5% were neutral, 8.3% disagreed and 6.3% strongly disagreed. In comparison, 32.5% of the students of the foreign trained lecturer strongly agreed that they knew what was expected of them and what the course was supposed to achieve, 41.3% agreed, 15% were neutral, 8.8% disagreed and 2.5% strongly disagreed.

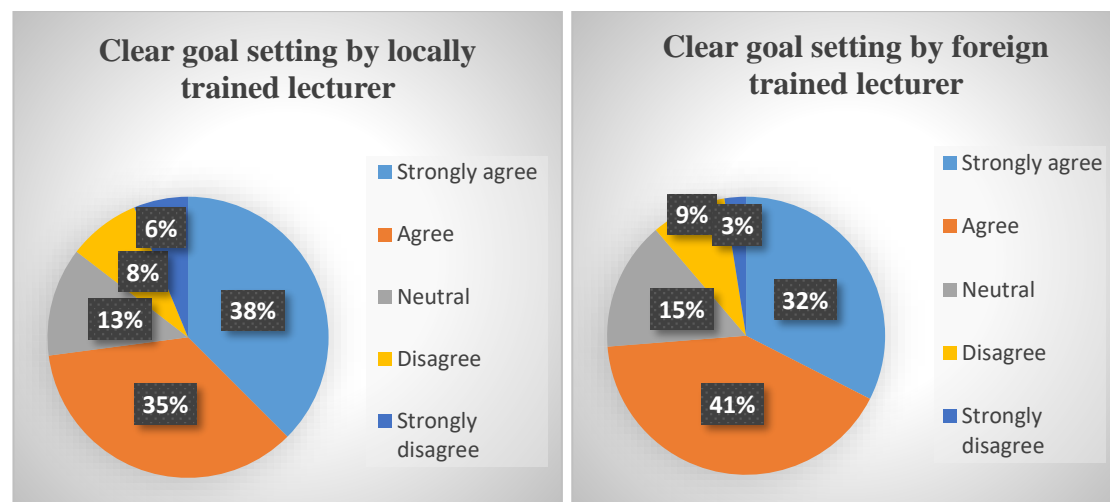
Figure 1.8: Ability to Set Clear Goal and Standards

Figure 1.8: A pie chart showing the share of respondents with respect to the five rating scale for the foreign and locally trained lecturer under the category of clear goal and standard setting.

Data Source: Field data

The students of Institution B also assessed their respective lecturers, that is locally and foreign trained lecturers with regards to the suitability of workload and how it affected their rate of understanding and absorption of the course content. For the locally trained lecturer, 19.4% of his students strongly agreed that the workload with appropriate, 27.8% agreed, 16.7% were neutral, 22.2% disagreed and 13.9% strongly disagreed. On the hand, 15.8% of the respondents of the foreign trained lecturer strongly agreed that the workload was appropriate, 32.5% of these respondents agreed, 25% were neutral, 16.7% disagreed and 10% strongly disagreed.

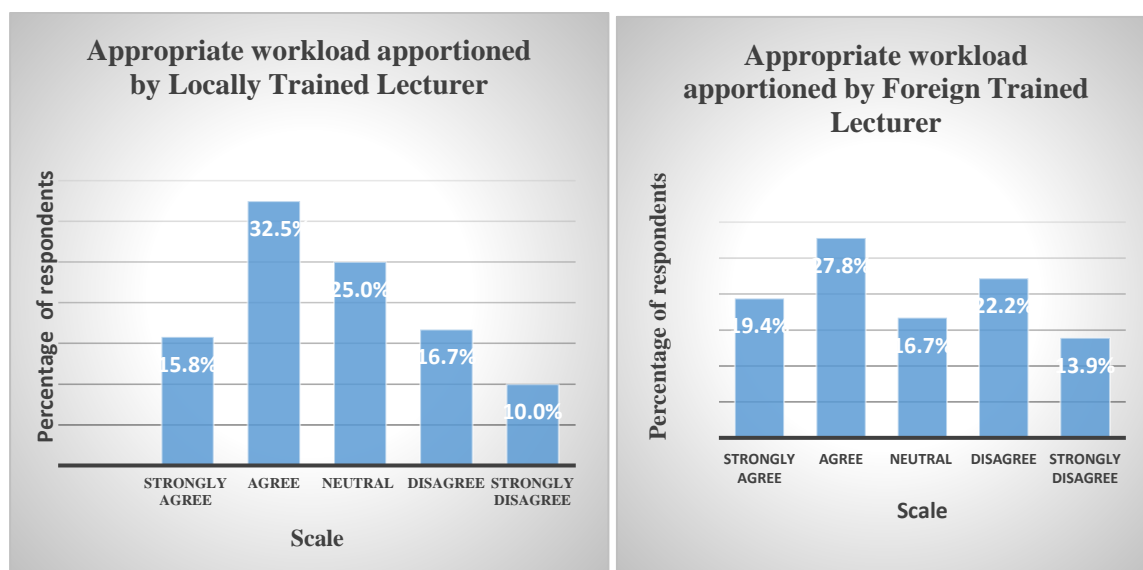
Figure 1.9: Appropriateness of Workload AppORTioned to Students

Figure 1.9: A graph that shows the percentage of students within the various rating scales for the foreign and locally trained lecturer in Institution B for the category of appropriate workload appORTioned to students.

Data Source: Field data

In terms of skills development, a significant difference could be observed between the ratings of the students of the locally trained lecturer and that of the foreign trained lecturer. In grouping strongly agree, agree and neutral together and categorising them as accept, as well as grouping disagree and strongly disagree together as reject, the difference between the two lecturers could be observed. 41.6% of the students of accepted that the locally trained lecturer was good at developing their skills and 58.4% rejected that the lecturer was good at developing their skills. However, 72.5% of the students of the foreign lecturer accepted that he developed their skills and 27.5% of the students rejected that their skills were developed by their lecturer.

Again, for the individual likert items under skills development, the modal response was analysed as shown in table 3. For the likert item of 'The instructor seems more interested in testing what I have memorised than what I have understood', the modal response for the locally trained lecturer was strongly agree whilst that of the

foreign trained lecturer was strongly disagree. The results of the other two likert items can be observed in table 3 below.

Table 1.2: Skill Development Ability of Lecturers

	Skill Development	
	Locally Trained Lecturer	Foreign Trained Lecturer
Strongly Agree	11.10%	21.70%
Agree	11.10%	22.50%
Neutral	19.40%	28.30%
Disagree	25.00%	15.00%
Strongly Disagree	33%	12.50%
Percentage Agreement		
Accept	41.60%	72.50%
Reject	58.30%	27.50%
Mode		
The instructor seems more interested in testing what I have memorised than what I have understood	-100	100
Instructor asks me questions just about facts	-100	0
Feedback on my work is usually provided only in the form of marks and grades	-100	0

Table 1.2: A table summarising the percentage of respondents per the rating scale, percentage agreement and mode of the three Likert items under the category of skill developments for foreign trained and locally trained lecturers.

Data Source: Field data

For the category of academic environment, 29.2% of the respondents for the strongly agreed that the locally trained lecturer was effective in creating a good academically stimulating environment, 39.6% agreed, 8.3% were neutral, 14.6% disagreed and 8.3% strongly disagreed. Conversely, 26.9% of the students of the foreign trained lecturer strongly agreed that a good academic environment was created by the lecturer, 37.5% agreed, 20.6% were neutral, 3.1% disagreed and 11.9% strongly disagreed.

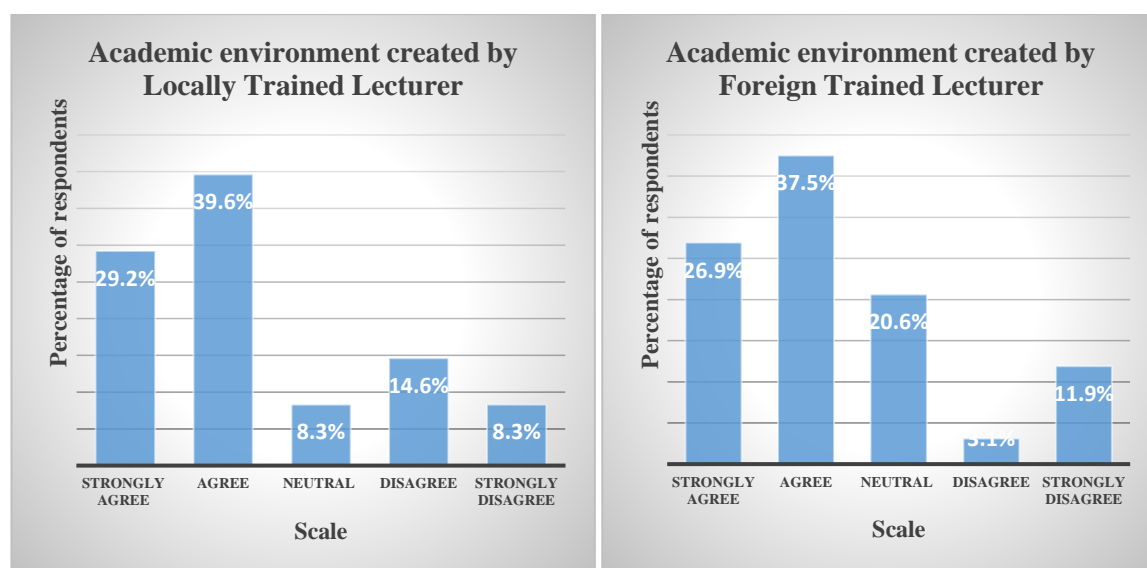
Figure 2.0: Ability to Create Conducive Academic Environment

Figure 2.0: A relationship graph between foreign and locally trained lecturers in terms of the percentage of respondents who strongly agree, agree, are neutral, disagree or strongly disagree to their ability to create a conducive academic environment.

Data Source: Field data

According to the Head of Department the difference in the teaching quality of foreign trained lecturers and locally trained lecturers is the fact that the “foreign trained lecturers have more exposure and they bring materials from their foreign institutions which aids their teaching.” (Head of Department, Institution B)

4.3.6 Ability to earn promotion in a 5-year period

In institution B the criteria used in awarding promotions includes research papers, evaluation of teaching quality by both students and peer lecturers and the service to the school. Findings from the interview with the Head of department indicated that even though “Human resource tries to apply the same rules and basis for promotion, but generally, foreign trained workers are promoted faster due to the perception that on the whole they are better than locally trained lecturers. In addition, foreign trained workers have complimentary soft skills such as having computer lectures aside from their main course. This makes them more desirable.”(Head of Department, Institution B)

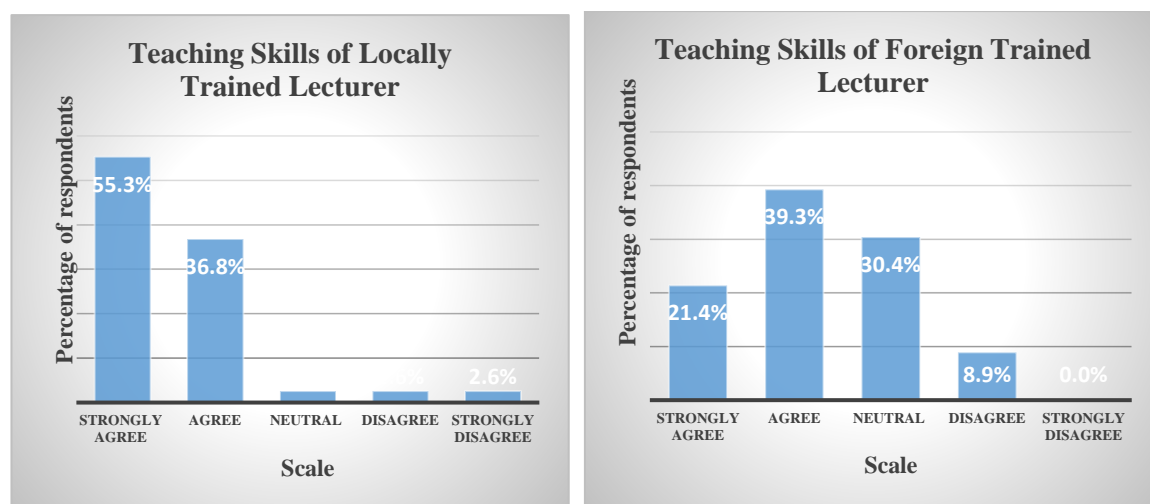
Again as was found in Institution A, foreign trained lecturer are more likely to earn a promotion in a 5-year period as there are considered as being more effective in research output and teaching quality which is among the major criteria for granting promotions.

4.3.7 Research Output for Institution C

The basis for determining the effectiveness of the foreign trained and the locally trained lecturer with regards to research output was the number of peer reviewed publications and conference papers they possessed. The foreign trained lecturer had partnered on three conference papers but had no publication. However, the locally trained lecturer had one publication in the International Journal of Business Management.

4.3.8 Teaching quality

Referring to figure 2.1, we can see that for the locally trained lecturer, 55.3% of his respondents strongly agree that the lecturer has good teaching skills, at the other extreme end of the scale, that is strongly disagree, 2.6% of the students of the locally trained lecturer strongly disagreed that the lecturer had good teaching skills. Contrariwise, only 21.4% of the students of the foreign trained lecturer strongly agreed that the lecturer had good teaching skill. However, 0% of the students strongly disagreed. The majority of the students, that is 69.7% either agreed or were neutral.

Figure 2.1: Teaching Skills of Locally and Foreign Trained Lecturer*Figure 2.1: A graph showing the percentage of respondents who strongly agree, agree, are neutral, disagree and strongly disagree with the good teaching skills of the locally trained lecturer and the foreign trained lecturer.*

Data Source: Field data

In terms of setting clear goals and standards, a higher percentage of the students of the locally trained lecturer, that is, 46% strongly agreed that the locally trained lecturer was good at ensuring that the students knew what was expected of them. In comparison, 30% of the students of the foreign trained lecturer strongly agreed that he was good at setting clear goals and standards. Similarly, a higher percentage of the students of the locally trained lecturer, that is, 4% strongly disagreed as compared to 2% of the students of the foreign trained lecturer.

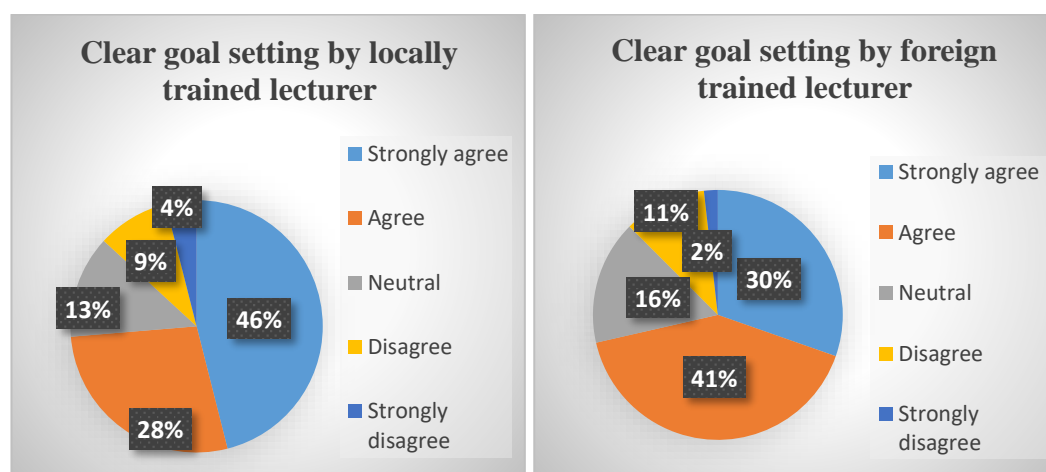
Figure 2.2: Ability to Set Clear Goals and Standards

Figure 2.2: A pie chart showing the share of respondents with respect to the five rating scale for the foreign and locally trained lecturer under the category of clear goal and standard setting.

Data Source: Field data

With respect to appropriate workload both the locally and foreign trained lecturers had low percentages of their respective students strongly agreeing that the workload apportioned to them is suitable. For the locally trained lecturer, only 12.3% of the students strongly agreed that workload apportioned by foreign trained lecturer was appropriate. Whilst for the foreign trained lecturer, only 9.5% of the students strongly agreed. The majority of the students either agreed or were neutral. 75.4% either agreed or were neutral as to whether the work apportioned by the locally trained lecturer were appropriate while 66.7% of the students of the foreign trained lecturer either agreed or were neutral about the suitability of the workload.

Figure 2.3: Appropriateness of Workload Apportioned to Students

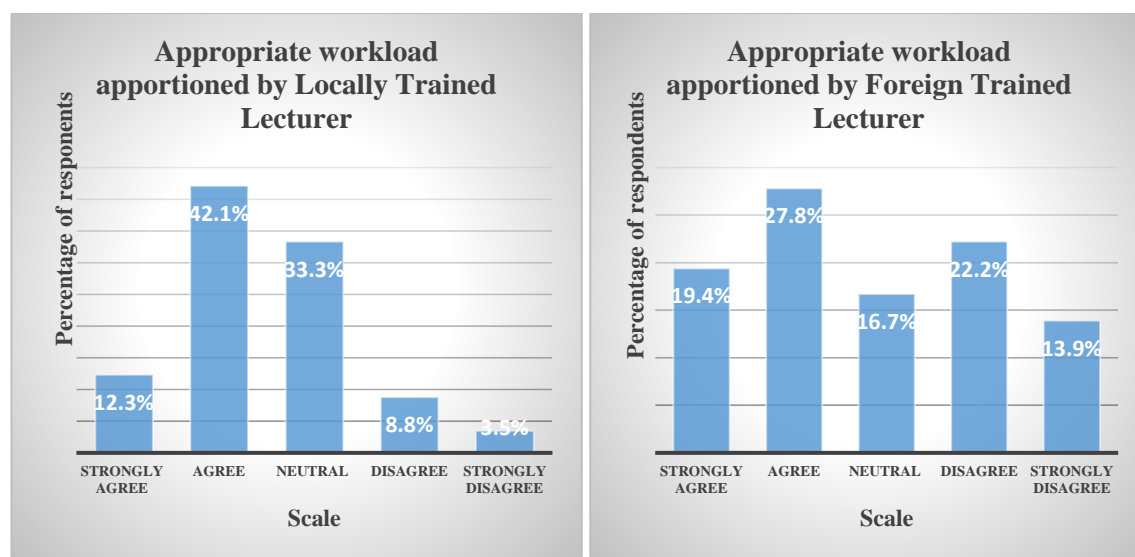


Figure 2.3: A graph that shows the percentage of students within the various rating scales for the foreign and locally trained lecturer in Institution B for the category of appropriate workload apportioned to students.

Data Source: Field data

A significant difference could be observed between the locally skilled lecturer and the foreign trained lecturer in relation to skill development. This difference was

revealed once the scale was categorised into accept and reject. Both lecturers had more than 50% of their respective students accepting that they were instrumental in their skill development. However, the foreign trained lecturer had a higher percentage, that is, 88.10% as opposed to 63.10% for the locally trained lecturer.

Table 1.3

	Skill Development	
	Locally Trained Lecturer	Foreign Trained Lecturer
Strongly Agree	26.30%	26.20%
Agree	19.30%	23.80%
Neutral	17.50%	38.10%
Disagree	29.80%	2.40%
Strongly Disagree	7%	9.50%
Percentage Agreement		
Accept	63.10%	88.10%
Reject	36.80%	11.90%

Table 1.3: : A table summarising the percentage of respondents per the rating scale and percentage agreement under the category of skill developments for foreign trained and locally trained lecturers.

Data source: Field data

Taking the two extreme ends of the scale, that is, strongly agree and strongly disagree, the locally trained lecturer had a better rating than the foreign trained lecturer. 42.1% of the students of the locally trained lecturer strongly agreed to the assertion that their lecturer was effective in creating an environment which was intellectually stimulating, as well as, encouraging. However, only 12.5% of the students of the foreign trained lecturer strongly agreed to that assertion. Again, 0% of the students of the locally trained lecturer strongly disagreed that their lecturer did not create a conducive academic environment, on the other hand, 1.8% of the students of the foreign trained lecturer strongly disagreed that their lecturer created a conducive academic environment.

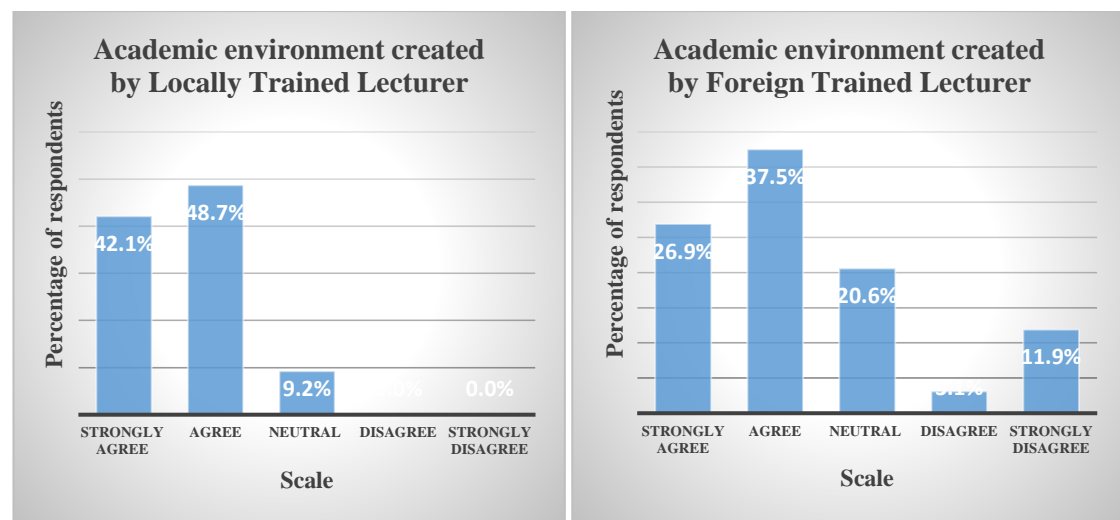
Figure 2.4: Ability to Create Conducive Academic Environment

Figure 2.4: A relationship graph between foreign and locally trained lecturers in terms of the percentage of respondents who strongly agree, agree, are neutral, disagree or strongly disagree to their ability to create a conducive academic environment.

Data Source: Field data

According to the foreign trained lecturer, the lecturers who had foreign training were more effective in teaching because in his opinion

“Those Ghanaian lecturers who had their masters outside the country, are able to add a touch of the western world. They make the lecturing so simple by the methods and approaches they have adopted like sending the needed documents to students via email, you are given assignments, and you don’t do everything in the classroom. So for example in a 3 hr class he lectures only for one hour and maybe adds presentations on readings assigned which gives you a hands on experience. So the transfer of knowledge from the classroom to the working field is perfect unlike the locally trained who may talk and talk and talk with little practicality”

This assertion was also backed by the Head of the Human Resources who revealed that

“in terms of teaching, foreign trained lecturers are different in the sense that they have more logistics which they use in their teaching, they are more flexible in terms of resources used as well. That is using things such as on-line quizzes, take-home exams and interactive online platforms. They are also very time conscious and are efficient. The locally trained lecturers on the other hand stick to the traditional way of teaching” (Head of HR Department, Institution C)

With respect to the traditional way of teaching mentioned by the Head of Human Resources in Institution C, it was explained as rote teaching and learning whereby the same method that is, lengthy lectures, are always used and students regurgitate exactly what has been taught.

Chi-Square Test of Gender Effects

The data collected from the students of the three institutions through the survey was coded into accept and reject with strongly agree, agree and neutral being accept and disagree and strongly disagree being reject. A contingency table of male and female versus accept and agree was constructed in order to test for independence using Chi-Square test (Refer to Table 1.2 in Appendix). The null and alternative hypothesis were respectively:

H_0 : Agreement is not associated with gender, and H_1 : Agreement is associated with gender.

Generally, a p-value of 0.05 or less is considered evidence against the null so it is rejected and a conclusion of significant relationship holds at 5% significant level.

Therefore, for locally trained lecturers, the returned p-value of 0.405783775 is highly insignificant. Hence, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that agreement is not associated with gender. Similarly for the foreign lecturers, the returned p-value of 0.781775826 is

more than 0.05, thus, we fail to reject the null hypothesis. In conclusion, whether the students accepted the assertion that their lecturer was effective in terms of teaching quality was not independent of their gender.

4.3.9 Ability to earn promotion in a 5-year period

In Institution C, the criterion used in the promotion of lecturers is research papers. According to the Head of the Human resource department, the criterion is so objective that it does not allow for general perceptions of foreign or locally trained lecturers to interfere with the promotion process. In the last five years, four locally trained lectures as opposed to one foreign trained lecturer were promoted out of 7 lecturers in total with 3 being foreign trained and 4 being locally trained . Therefore the ratio for the foreign trained lecturer was 0.14 compared to the 0.57 for the locally trained lecturer.

The likelihood to earn a promotion in a 5-year period in Institution C is independent of where the lecturer trained and both the locally and foreign trained lecturer have an equal ability to earn a promotion in a 5-year period and in the last five years locally trained lecturers have had a 57% success rate. "In this institution, promotion is not based on where you schooled. We make sure that there are no general perceptions about the various lecturers. We seek to give an equal platform." (Head of HR department).

4.4 IMPACT OF EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND ON OBSERVED DIFFERENCES

The second research question was to ascertain whether the differences observed were as a result of the country where lecturers obtained their graduate degree. The findings from the semi-structured interviews with 3 foreign trained lecturers, 3 locally trained lecturers, 2 Heads of Department and a Head of HR department are presented and discussed below. The results are not robust across institutions and that specific factors inherent in the educational background of the two groups of lecturers are important and limit the generalizability of the results: they cannot be generalized to all institutions

within the respective country. However, other factors which could be considered as macro-environment impacts was also found. The macro-environment refers to impacts of their educational background which stems from the environment created by nation-wide factors.

4.4.1 Institutional Impacts

Differences in research output was found to be most attributed to the educational background and in particular whether they were trained outside. "My graduate education outside has improved my research output. It was a good experience. It has added up to my skills. They added a dimension we are not looking at. I am not saying Ghanaian institutions are bad, No, they do their best but I tell you, over there they make it more practical" (Foreign trained lecturer in Institution A).

The practicality which the Foreign trained lecturer in Institution A believed was characteristic of their research output was as a result of undergoing an educational experience which placed value on being more applied than theoretical. "Graduate school has affected my view of research output in this way; gone are the days where we did research only to confirm what others have done but now I am looking at research output where people will come out with new ideas. My graduate education has pushed me higher than just confirming others theory" (Foreign lecturer in Institution B)

"The experience I had with the foreign institution, you are forced to read a number of literature to answer a particular question and that alone influenced me in my research work. Of about 30 something courses that we did over 85% of those 38 or 37 courses were researched based." (Foreign trained lecturer in Institution C). Through actively engaging students in the various aspects of research until they have familiarised themselves with the concept and know-how, the foreign education offers an advantage of making research concrete such that it is imbed in their students.

Another aspect of practicality is clear in this statement "Issues of plagiarism and other things are taken seriously unlike here that you write and not really pay attention to those things; the practicality is there so you have to practice" (Locally trained lecturer in Institution C). In his opinion, not only does the foreign training focus on the pragmatism of the research conducted, but secondary issues such ethical considerations are practised and ensured. This adds another dimension to the research output of foreign trained lecturer which might be lost in the research output of locally trained lecturer. For the foreign trained lecturer in Institution B, the reason for his perceived effectiveness in research output was due to the supervision he received as a graduate student in the foreign school he attended:

"I believe I have an advantage over my colleagues who had their masters in Ghana because in the outside world they have time for the students they are supervising, in fact the student-supervisor relationship is very strong. He has time to help you. I did my undergraduate in Ghana and your supervisor may not even see you in 3 months and knows nothing about your work. The foreign lecturers also have time for reading so you don't just push chaff there." (Foreign Trained Lecturer in Institution B)

With this, knowledge that comes with experience is transferred from the supervisor to the students and therefore, the students learn best practices and is not limited by only the knowledge that he or she possesses. "That is, unlike the foreign training, for local training, the supervision is not well done due to personal economic problems which the supervisor has to devote time to solve." That is, locally trained lecturers do a lot of part time. In their graduate education, they are faced with lack of funds, time constraint, ill-treatment and neglect from supervisors this makes them averse to research in general." (Head of Department in Institution B).

"I can't say that for a fact that my masters has made me better than my colleagues who schooled in Ghana. However, in the foreign institutions they have a way of helping you to appreciate research unlike in Ghana where some lecturers seem to make research look like something of a rocket science. The foreign approach makes it so simple, flexible and smooth that you go like ah that isn't so difficult. The foreign institutions have several methods, approaches and tools to help their students. It becomes academic with fun but over here we tend to focus on challenges so much so that much of the enthusiasm you may have had in research fizzles out." (Foreign lecturer in Institution C).

This could be a contributing factor in the observed differences in the number of publications of foreign trained lecturers to locally trained lecturers.

Differences in teaching quality could also be attributed to educational background on an institutional level. According to the Head of HR in Institution C "The biggest difference between foreign trained and locally trained lecturers is that the teaching quality is richer for the foreign trained lectures as they have rich information from research. This can be attributed to their education and experience in their respective foreign institutions." This assertion is supported by the foreign lecturer in Institution C.

"How research has helped me to teach these courses better is that; when you do research, it opens you up to new knowledge and so in appreciating what research has done I would say It has made me confident in how I present the knowledge I have acquired in the classroom. The confidence comes from the fact that I know what I am sharing to the students and I know what I am sharing is factual." (Foreign Lecturer from Institution C).

Again, the Head of Department was of the opinion that the casual relationship between lecturer and student which foreign trained lecturers are exposed to as a result of their education makes them better teachers because they are able to better understand their students. This is because they bring their experience of the close student-teacher relationship to their students in Ghana. According to the locally trained lecturer in Institution A, the foreign trained lecturer has more exposure than I do and this enhances his teaching"

4.4.2 Macro-Environment Impact

The observed differences between foreign trained lecturers and locally trained lecturers can be attributed to the macro-environment of the respective countries of the institutions where the graduate degree was obtained. These can be categorised into logistics, research culture, as well as, workload and general perceptions. These macro-environment impacts are all related to the differences in research output between foreign trained lectures and locally trained lecturers.

Logistics

"We found ourselves in a not too developed country. This is Ghana, we can't compare ourselves." (Locally trained lecturer in Institution A)

In order to carry out any research there are resources and materials which are needed to facilitate effective research. Thus, the absence or presence of these factors can have significant impacts on the research output and invariably the research skills that is cultivated by the researcher. The general finding was that the graduate education system in Ghana lacked in the supportive logistics which were needed to facilitate effective research. According to the foreign trained lecturer in Institution B, time and logistics affected his rate of research the most. Time factor and the supportive logistics were

inadequate as compared to the supportive logistics that were available to him in the foreign country he studied at. "In this modern day, information is not the problem but the time to fish out that information is a problem and sometimes you may need the aided logistics which would help you gather the information" (Foreign trained lecturer in Institution B).

The Head of Department in Institution B believed that the research output of the locally trained lecturer was lower as compared to the research output of the foreign trained lecturer because ".....the materials needed are also not available which frustrated the work of locally trained workers. Thus, creating apathy for research. The foreign training is much richer and interesting as a result of available materials." The motivation needed to carry out research involves more than the intrinsic motivation which stems out of the researcher himself or herself. This is because without the supportive logistics research is made more difficult and complex thus reducing the zeal of researchers to be proficient in their research output.

"Come to think of it those who go outside to do their masters go there fully furnished, internet facilities and all that but then we went through the hard way and to me I feel if I have the opportunities they had out there my output would be more than what they are doing today. I feel graduate education made me go through it the hard way and if I get their opportunities I believe I give off more than a 100%" (Locally trained lecturer in Institution A).

This supportive logistics do not only affect the rate of research output in terms of the number of publications, it also affects the mind-set that the researcher possesses about his research capabilities as well.

Funding was another recurrent observation in terms of factors which both locally trained and foreign trained lecturers mentioned as being a key factor which affected their rate of output. The locally trained lecturer in Institution A felt that "Usually, it is funding which affects my rate of research output. If we are talking of publications, there are three stars, five star journals, obviously, they expect much from you. If you don't find yourself in a situation where you have access to funds you cannot undertake those publications." This was reiterated by the locally trained lecturers in Institution A and B. ".....and then almighty funds, any institution that seeks to push the research output of their faculty should also make available some funds"

It should be noted that these macro-environment factors impact both foreign and locally trained lecturers as they are nation-wide phenomena. However, foreign trained lecturers as result of their education in their respective foreign institutions have knowledge of more resources. For instances in terms of getting the literature they need for research, these foreign trained lecturers have networks with foreign institutions and colleagues that have free access to these literature, therefore, as compared to their locally trained compatriots they are able to easily access such information. Again, the foreign trained lecturer may already have access to software such as STATA, SPSS or PSPP, hence they are conversant with these tools. Again, obtaining such tools in Ghana may not be difficult as they already have them installed as a result of their education received in a foreign institution.

Finally, for funds and grants, the foreign trained lecturer has a wider network for which to solicit funds from. These reasons may account for why the foreign trained lecturer is more productive in terms of research output even though the macro-environment affects all the lecturers in Ghana.

Research Culture and general perceptions

According to Hauer (1993) research culture refers to “the many, often subtle, ‘point-sized’ rules and customs of research activity picked up and repeated by organisational members until their actions ‘blend’ into a collective attitude. Within this community, the accepted research culture - even if it is unconsciously accepted by many - defines how each individual should think, act and make decisions about research.”

Again, similar to the general finding with respect to logistics, the research culture as perceived by the respondents of this research is seen as underdeveloped in Ghana, as opposed to the respective foreign countries of the respondents. The table below present issues raised about research culture.

Table 1.4

Excerpts of interviews	Participants
<i>There is this research apathy in Ghana</i>	Locally trained lecturer in Institution A
<i>Foreign trained lecturers on the other hand are exposed to a research culture which is much different from the culture in Ghana which is basically do the work just in the name of receiving degree .</i>	Head of Department in Institution B
<i>Basically, educational level also affects the rate of research output. Sometimes you go out there and people don't even appreciate what you are doing. So people may be just saying things just to get you satisfied once you are done you go your way. But is that really reflecting on the ground data. So basically I feel people need more education .</i>	Foreign trained lecturer in Institution A
<i>We should have system whereby a researcher does not feel compelled to massage data and create an environment that promotes research. Some basic information you need by some institutions are termed confidential. Thus the research outcome is not a true reflection of what really should have been the case .</i>	Locally trained lecturer in Institution C

Table 1.4: A table summarising the perception of respondents about the research culture in Ghana.

Data Source: Field Data

The research results also revealed that certain perceptions were prevalent in Ghana and served to create a divide between foreign trained lectures and locally trained lecturers. These perceptions create a supposed difference between foreign and locally trained lecturer even before they are assessed or carry out their responsibilities. Table 5 below lists some these perceptions which were found in the data collected through semi-structured interviews.

Table 1.5

Excerpts of interviews	Participants
<i>I think it is that black mentality that anything foreign is the best but in actual either they are equally good or the locally trained is even better</i>	Locally trained lecturer in Institution C
<i>I feel I received the best graduate education because that is UK for you. That is British training for you. You know whites they don't take things for granted</i>	Foreign trained lecturer in Institution A
<i>It's a Ghanaian perception that foreign trained workers are better .</i>	Head of Department in Institution A
<i>Since there is a general perception that foreign trained lecturers are of a higher quality, they usually feel they have a lot to prove so they work hard to meet standards that are perceived of them .</i>	Head of Department in Institution B

Table 1.5: A table summarising general perceptions of foreign trained and locally trained lecturers by respondents of the study.

Data Source: Field Data

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

5.1 SUMMARY

The purpose of this research seeks to tackle whether Ghanaian universities are graduating quality human capital who can tackle the national needs, as well as, possess the requisite skills relevant to the job market in Ghana in order to facilitate economic growth. This was undertaken in the context of private higher educational institutions in Greater Accra. To achieve this purpose, foreign trained lecturers and locally trained lecturers were assessed in terms of research output, teaching quality and career advancement. The research output was measured as the number of publications, teaching quality was measured using student evaluations and career advancement was assessed as the ability to earn promotion in a five-year period. This chapter reports the conclusions and recommendations of the study.

The Course Experience Questionnaire (CEQ) developed by Ramsden (1992) was adapted to create the survey version which was administered to the respective students of the lecturers which were included in the study. In the adapted questionnaire, 4 Likert items were adopted from the CEQ under the category of good teaching skills, clear goals and standards and academic environment. For the category of appropriate workload and skills development, 3 Likert items each were used. These items were chosen because they directly assessed the lecturer's teaching quality, that is, some of the Likert items not included in the study sought to assess the course as opposed to the lecturer. All the respondents assessed each Likert items as either strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree or strongly disagree.

Semi-structured interviews were also conducted to ascertain data for research output and ability to earn promotion in a 5-year period. Through the use of the

questionnaire and interview, data relevant to the research questions were collected for analysis.

5.2 CONCLUSIONS

The objective of the conclusion is to synthesize and summarize the results and the comparative differences between foreign trained lecturer and to ascertain whether the observed difference can be tied to the educational background. This is to analyse whether or not locally trained lecturers are equipped for national goals and work efficiency.

Overall, attitudes and perception held by lecturers, students and heads of departments are that foreign trained lecturers in the sample institutions are more effective in terms of research output, teaching quality and ability to earn a promotion in a 5 year-period. With regards to number of publications, the foreign lecturers in all three institutions had higher number of publication thus signalling that there exists a difference between foreign trained lecturers and locally trained lecturers in terms of research output and that foreign trained lecturers are more proficient in research output than locally trained workers.

Foreign trained lecturers were also on average found to be more effective in teaching with regards to good teaching skills, clear goal setting, appropriate workload, skills development and academic environment. However, Institution C was an anomaly in the sense that the locally trained lecturer was rated higher in all the Likert categories except skills development and was contrary to the results in the other two institutions. Likewise, unlike the Institution A and Institution B that unequivocally stated that foreign trained lecturers had a higher ability to earn a promotion in a 5-year period, Institution C had more locally trained lecturers earning promotions as opposed to foreign trained lecturers. This may mainly be as a result of their commitment to their equal platform

policy instead of relying on perception as could be deduced from the interview with the Heads of Department in Institution A and B.

In this sample, the perception of the lecturers, Heads of Department and the Head of the HR department were that there existed a strong relationship between the differences between the locally and foreign trained lecturer and their educational background, in particular because they trained abroad. This was not limited to only institutional impacts but also the enabling environment created in their respective institution's countries. Overall, the educational background of the foreign trained lecturers in the sample was seen as better both in terms of institutional impacts and macro-environment, the major factor being technology and in particular, knowledge of and the ability to use technology in teaching and research. This is the reason foreign trained lecturers are perceived as more effective than their locally trained counterparts.

This major finding that the educational background and the type of environment in which education was received is important is supported by Barro (2001), Olaniyan and Okemakinde (2008) Hanushek and Woessmann (2010) and Deku, (2014). That is, the type and quality of education provided greatly influences the stock and effectiveness of human capital available for activities which would promote economic growth especially through technological progress (Barro, 2001; Olaniyan & Okemakinde, 2008; Hanushek & Woessmann, 2010; Deku, 2014). Appleton and Teal (1998) found that low investment in physical capital has repercussions for the rates of return on human capital, particularly education. This current study corroborates this finding for the case of the higher education system in a developing country like Ghana as most of the respondents found logistics and technology as a factor that affected the rate of research the most.

To date there is growing body of literature on differences in foreign lecturers and local lecturers. The perceptions of students in an American-style university in Nigeria, found that for each criterion the students evaluated their American expatriate lecturers better than their Nigerian counterparts (Zikovic, Salatian, Ademoh & Shanan, 2013). The current analysis of data from the three Ghanaian institutions lends further support for the perception of students about their local teachers to their foreign lecturers, even though Institution C refuted this conclusion through an intentional effort to minimize bias.

Importantly, beyond the type and quality of education received, the mind-set that is cultivated as a result of the educational background also goes a long way to affect the differences between foreign trained lecturers and locally trained lecturers. Foreign trained lecturers in the sample were found to have a lot of confidence in their abilities as a result of the fact they believed they had the best education based on both the institutional and macro-environment. On the other hand, some of the locally trained lecturers felt disadvantaged from the start and therefore believed that it was just right if the foreign trained were more effective than them.

Although, it was found that the overall perception of students in the sample was that foreign trained lecturers were better in terms of teaching than the locally trained lecturer, there have been studies which have argued that context specific skills are also relevant in the perception of teaching quality by students (Hoque, Alam, Shamsudin, Akbar, Moktharuddin & Fong, 2010). Thus, locally trained lecturers can be rated higher by students. However, there was little evidence found in this sample that support that belief. According to the findings this is as a result of the low power distance between foreign trained lecturers and the students and therefore the foreign trained lecturers are able to learn what is expected of them.

The findings that overall foreign trained lecturers are more effective than locally trained lecturer is also inconsistent with the findings by Ang, Van Dyne and Bergley (2003) which discovered that job performance of foreign workers as opposed to domestic workers was lower. A possible explanation is that they made the assumption that foreign workers potentially receive less from the organization, due to temporary employment, as well as, no long-term benefits and access to promotion opportunities. This was not found to be the same within the current sample case of three private higher education institutions especially with regards to promotion opportunities.

Overall, the Ghanaian trained lecturers within the sample oppose the proposition that the local higher education system has the ability to produce workers whose effectiveness can be matched to that of workers who have been trained outside. This has implication on the phenomenon of brain-drain. Since, the remaining human capital within the sample were found not to be comparatively effective, it implies that lecturers who received graduate education in a foreign institution and remained in the foreign country were causing an economic loss to the country in the form of human capital. That is, the introduction of efficient means of production or undertaking productive activities. In addition, it implies that policies and strategies deployed by government in an effort to encourage repatriation is necessary not only to increase the stock of effective human capital but also to encourage spill over. Another important implication of the findings is that the premium attached to foreign workers may be justifiable. This in turn suggests that there is the likelihood of emigration of Ghanaian students seeking graduate education.

As observed by Hoque et al (2010) locally trained workers would learn from their foreign trained compatriots as they interact with them. This is spill over is feasible with respect to the current study as all the lecturers whether foreign trained or locally trained

were all Ghanaians and could overcome obstacles such as cultural differences in order to learn from each other.

The identified macro-environment factors such as logistics and research culture and perception which contribute to the difference between foreign trained and locally trained lecturers are nation-wide phenomena. Therefore, there is a high likelihood that the results found in the current study would replicate in the public university system especially with regards to career advancement and research output.

The macro-environmental factors identified can be attributed to the fact that Ghana is a developing country and as most African countries fall within this bracket, it is realistic to expect that the results from the current study would replicate in other African countries although country-specific factors could well turn the results on its head. An example of research consistent with the findings of this research is in the results of Hoque et al (2010) where the foreign lecturers were seen as more effective than their Nigerian compatriots in terms of teaching quality.

Some limitations of this study that merit mention is that the data was mostly based on perceptions as interviews were the main data collection method used. Again, the information obtained through the survey lent itself to simple descriptive analysis. Future research designs may benefit from the use of a quantitative approach to understanding relationship between various variables such as research output and teaching. This would give a better understanding of significance level of findings.

At the moment, the findings cannot be generalized to a broader population. Further research is needed to understand how significant preconceptions about locally trained lecturers and foreign trained impact the effectiveness of these two groups of

lecturers, as well as, develop effective strategies to minimize the adverse effects if any is found.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are offered with respect to institutions included in the study, as well as, to inform policy. In addition, recommendations are given with regards to further research in relation to human capital differences between foreign trained workers and locally trained workers

1. Deduced from the results of the study, it is recommended that Institution A and B make a directed effort to reduce the pervasiveness of pre-conceptions of foreign and locally trained lecturers especially with respect to the Heads of Department. This is because as was seen in Institution C, the commitment to creating an equal platform devoid of pre-conceptions contributed to difference in results especially with respect to ability to earn a promotion in a five-year period. In an environment where lecturers feel there is an equal platform, there is a higher likelihood that there would be knowledge transfer between foreign and locally trained lecturers.
2. The various institutions should also hold seminars that would encourage both the locally trained lecturers and the foreign trained lecturers to learn from each other. Again, cross-research projects should be encouraged, that is, research projects involving locally trained and foreign trained lecturers.
3. Based on the findings that research culture is one of the factors that account for the difference between foreign and locally trained lecturers, it is recommended to policy makers in the educational sector to consider making research an active part of basic education or at its minimal, Senior High School. This would help reduce apathy for research, as well as, erroneous conceptions about research

4. It is recommended that an incentive scheme is generated to encourage repatriation of foreign trained workers back to Ghana. In particular repatriates that bring about the transfer of technology, that is, the inflow of technology from their foreign countries, which would reduce the logistical problems in the country. This would simultaneously increase the stock of effective human capital whilst reducing a factor which hinders the effectiveness of both foreign and locally trained worker, which in this context refers to lecturers.
5. There is the need for the involvement of policy makers and government in tackling the macro-environment impacts since these macro-environment factors are nation-wide phenomena. Thus, it would require extensive involvement of the government in order to bridge the gap between foreign trained lecturers and locally trained lecturers. Efforts such as provision of stable internet access in all universities, as well as, research grants would go a long way in improving the effectiveness of both locally and foreign trained lecturers.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

1. Given that this research was conducted with the aim of providing background information, clarify, as well as, define a problem, a purely quantitative research which makes use of variables which have been identified in this study would further extend understanding in this area of study. Significance of variables may also be obtained.
2. In relation to further research, a longitudinal study would also help to determine and document trends which may provide a different result from the current study. Again, a longitudinal study would reduce a level of bias.

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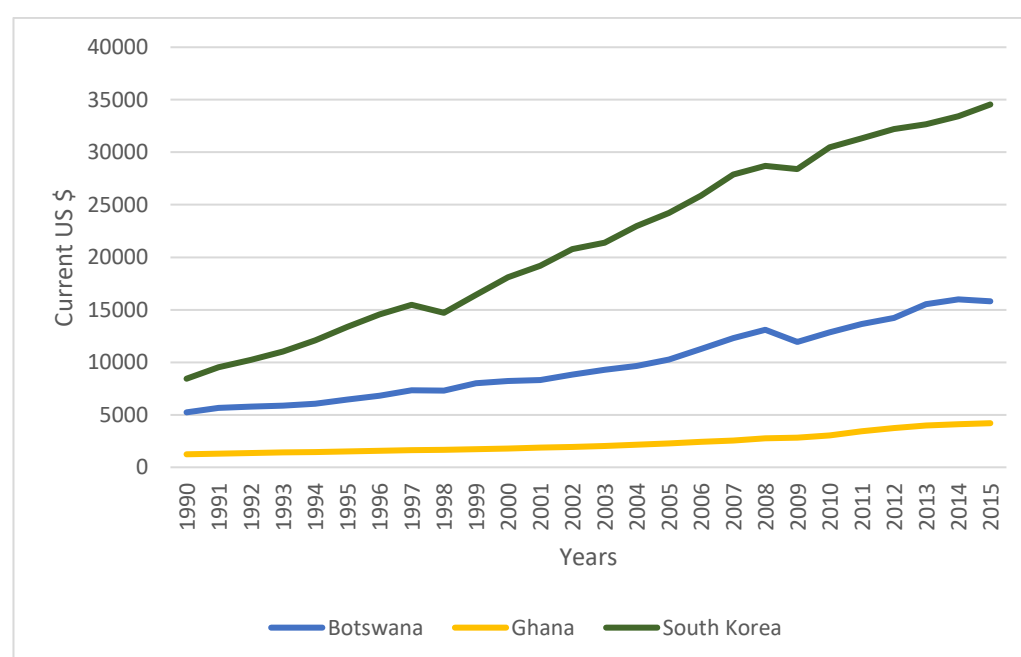
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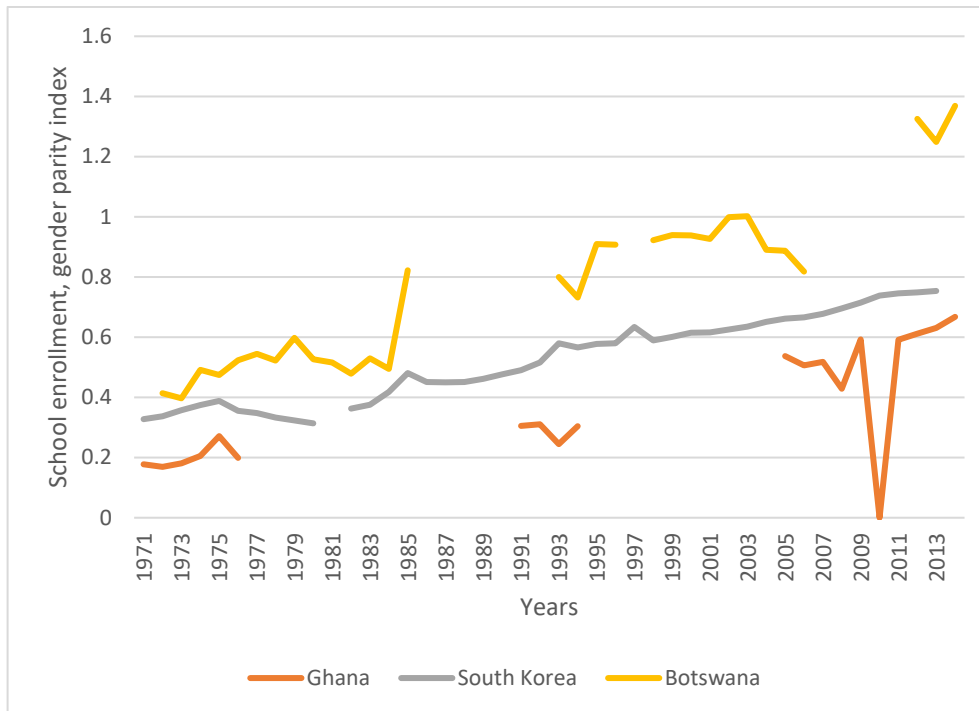
APPENDIX

Figure 1.0: A Graph Showing a Comparison of Gross Domestic Product of Ghana, Botswana and South Korea from 1990 to 2015



Source: www.worldbank.org

Figure 1.1: A graph showing a A comparison of gross tertiary enrollment, gender parity index of Ghana, Bostwana and South Korea from 1971 to 2014



Source: www.worldbank.org

Table 1.0: A Draft of the Questionnaire used in the Study

Teaching

- The instructor was extremely good at explaining things
- The instructor normally gives me helpful feedback on how I am doing
- The instructor of this course motivates me to do my best work
- The instructor make a real effort to understand difficulties I may be having with my work

Clear goals and standards

- It is always easy to know the standard of work expected
- The instructor made it clear right from the start what they expected from students
- It has often been hard to discover what is expected of me in this course
- I usually had a clear idea of where I am going and what is expected of me

Appropriate workload

- I am generally given enough time to understand the things I have to learn
- The sheer volume of work to be got through in this course means it can't all be thoroughly comprehended
- The workload given by the instructor is too heavy

Skills Development

- The instructor seems more interested in testing what I have memorised than what I have understood
- Instructor asks me questions just about facts
- Feedback on my work is usually provided only in the form of marks or grades

Academic Environment

- The instructor is intellectually stimulating
- The instructor is effective in supporting my learning

The instructor stimulates my enthusiasm for further learning

I feel I benefit from being in contact with my instructor

Source: Ramsden, P. (1991). A performance indicator of teaching quality in higher education: the Course Experience Questionnaire. *Studies in Higher Education*, 16, 129–150

Table 1.1: A list of the 39 NAB Accredited Private Universities in Greater Accra Region and the programmes offered.

	Private Universities in Greater Accra Region	
	Name of Institutions	Programmes Offered
1	Academy City College	B.Sc. Business Information Systems
		B.Sc. Information Technology
2	Accra College of Medicine	Bachelor of Medicine and Bachelor of Surgery (MBChB)
3	Accra Institute of Technology	B.Sc. Business Administration (Accounting and Finance)
		B.Eng. Electrical and Electronics Engineering
		B.Eng. Computer Engineering
		B.Sc. Computer Science
		Bachelor of Business Administration (Marketing and Information Technology)
		Bachelor of Business Administration (Banking and Finance and Information Technology)
		Bachelor of Business Administration (Entrepreneurship and Information Technology)
		Bachelor of Business Administration (Human Resource Management and Information Technology)
		B.Sc. Information Technology
		Bachelor of Business Administration (E-Commerce)
4	Advanced Business College	Degree Programme in Graphic Designing (B.Sc. Graphic Design)
		Degree Programme in Management Studies
5	Almond Institute	B.Sc. International Business Administration and Global Leadership
		MBA General(Australia Institute of Business)

		MBA Human Resource Management(Australia Institute of Business)
		MBA Marketing(Australia Institute of Business)
6	Anglican University College of Technology	B.A. Development and Management Studies
		B.Sc. Community Medicine and Health
		B.Sc. Health Information Management
7	Baldwin College	HND Business Administration
		HND Medical Laboratory Technology
		B.Sc. Medical Laboratory Technology
8	Blue crest College	B.B.A. Information System
		B.A. Mass Communications and Journalism
		B.Sc. Fashion Design
		B.B.A. Banking and Finance
		B.B.A. Human Resource Management
		B.B.A. Procurement and Supply Chain Management
9	Catholic Institute of Business and Technology	B.Sc. Public Administration
		M.B.A. Global Business and Sustainability - Social Entrepreneurship
		B.A. Religious Studies and Church Administration
		B.Sc. Business Administration and Management Studies(Accounting, Banking and Finance, Human Resource Management and Marketing Options)
		B.Sc. Banking and Finance
		B.Sc. Information Technology
10	CSIR College of Science and Technology	M.Phil. Climate Change and Integrated Natural Resource
		M.Sc. Climate Change and Integrated Natural Resource
		M.Phil. Fisheries
		M.Phil. Plant Breeding and Biotechnology
		M.Phil. Aquaculture
		M.Phil. in Soil Health and Environment
		M.Phil. Industrial Animal Nutrition and Feed Production
		M.Phil. in Food Science and Technology
11	Data link Institute	B.Sc. Computer Science
12	Dominion University College	BSc Business Administration (Accounting)
		BSc Business Administration (Marketing)

		BSc Business Administration (Human Resource Management)
		BSc Business Administration (Banking and Finance)
13	Entrepreneurship Training Institute	B.Ed. Early Childhood Education
14	Family Health Medical School	Bachelor of Medicine and Bachelor of Surgery(MBChB)
15	Fountainhead Christian College	B.Sc. Business Administration – Accounting
		B.Sc. Business Administration – Marketing
		B.Sc. Business Administration - Banking and Finance
		B.Sc. Information and Communication Technology
		B.Sc. Business Administration - Human Resource Management
		B.A. Applied Theology and Leadership
16	Ghana Christian University College	B.A. Theology
		Diploma in Theology Studies
		B.Sc. Nursing
17	Ghana Technology University College	M.Sc. Engineering and Management
		M.Sc. Supply Chain Management
		M.B.A. Information Technology for Management (Coventry Univ.)
		M.B.A. Finance (Coventry Univ.)
		M.B.A. Oil & Gas Management (Coventry Univ.)
		M.Sc. /M.B.A. Logistics (Coventry Univ.)
		M.Sc. Network Computing (Coventry Univ.)
		M.Sc. Software Computing (Coventry Univ.)
		M.Sc. Forensics Computing (Coventry Univ.)
		M.Sc. Management Information Systems
		M.Sc. Engineering Project Management
		M.Sc. Quality Management (Univ. of West Scotland)
		M.Sc. Project Management (Univ. of West Scotland)
		M.Sc. Microelectronics & Wireless Systems (Coventry Univ.)
18	Golden Sunbeam International College of Science And Technology	B.Sc. Nursing

		Diploma in Agribusiness Processing Technology
		Diploma in Nursing
		B.Sc. Agribusiness Processing Technology
19	Heritage Christian College	Bachelor of Business Administration: Human Resource Management, Accounting, Banking and Finance, Marketing, and Information Technology Management
		Bachelor of Theology
		B.Sc. Information Technology
20	JAYEE University College	Bachelor of Business Administration (Secretaryship & Management)
		Bachelor of Business Administration (Public Relations)(PR)
		Diploma in Business Administration (Accounting)
		Diploma in Business Administration (Secretaryship and Management)
		Diploma in Business Administration (Marketing)
		Diploma in Business Administration (Public Relations)
		Bachelor of Arts in Journalism (Business)
		Bachelor of Arts in Journalism (Political Science)
		Diploma in Journalism(Journalism)
		Introduction to Feature Writing (Feature Writing)
		Desktop Publishing (DTP)
		Broadcast News Reporting
		Radio & TV News Presentation
		Advanced Reporting
		Radio Production
		TV Production
		Photojournalism
21	Joyce Ababio College of Creative Design	B.A. Fashion Design
		Diploma in Fashion Design
22	KAAF university College	BSc. Business Administration (Accounting)
		BSc. Business Administration (Banking and Finance)
		B.Sc. Business Administration (Marketing)
		B.Sc. Business Administration (Insurance)

		B.Sc. Business Administration (Human Resource Management)
		B.Sc. Civil Engineering
		B.Sc. Computer Science
		B.Sc. Construction Technology
		B.Sc. Geomatics Engineering
		B.Sc. Electrical/Electronic Engineering
		B.Sc. Mechanical Engineering
		B.Sc. Nursing
		Bachelor of Laws
23	Kings University College	Bachelor of Laws
		B.Sc. Computer Science
		B.Sc. Information Technology
		Master of Business Administration with options in:
		• Strategic Management
		• Accounting
		• Banking and Finance
		• Human Resource Management
		• Marketing
		Bachelor of Business Admin. Accounting
		Bachelor of Business Admin. Banking and Finance
		Bachelor of Business Admin. Marketing
24	Knutsford College	B.Sc. Information Technology
25	Lancaster University	LLB in Law
		B.A. Political Science and International Relations
		B.Sc. Psychology
		B.A. Economics and Politics
		M.A. International Relations
		B.Sc. Computer Science
		B.Sc. Accounting and Finance
		B.Sc. Marketing
		B.Sc. Business Management
		Global Executive MBA
26	Madina Institute of Science and Technology	B.Sc. Civil Engineering
		B.Sc. Oil and Gas Engineering
		B.Sc. Mechanical Engineering
		B.Sc. Business Administration (Human Resource Management)
27	Marshall's College	Hospitality and Tourism
		Bachelor of Arts (B.A) Degree in English Language Programme
		B.Sc. Business Administration
28	Methodist University College	B.Sc. Economics

		B.Sc. Information Technology (IT)
		Diploma in Information Technology
		M.A. Guidance and Counselling
		M.Phil. Guidance and Counselling
		B.A. Music
		B.Sc. Economics and Statistics
		Diploma in Nursing
		B.F.A. Theatre Studies
		B.A. Social Work
29	Mountcrest University College	Bachelor of Social Work
30	Nobel International Business School	Doctor of Management/Business Administration
		PhD. Business Administration
31	Nyansapo College	M.A. International Relations and Development
32	Organization Development Institute	Masters of Arts In Organisation Development
		Post-Graduation Diploma In Organisation Development
33	Pentecost University College	M.Com. Taxation
		M.Com. Applied Accounting
		M.Com. Microfinance
		M.B.A. Finance
		BSc. Business Administration (Accounting Option)
		M.Sc. International Accounting and Finance
		B.Sc. Nursing
		B.Sc. Construction Technology and Management
		B.Sc. Quantity Surveying and Construction Economics
		M.A. Pentecostal Studies
		B.Sc. Logistics and Supply Chain Management
		Association of Business Programmes
		MBA Logistics and Supply Chain Management
		MBA Marketing
		MBA Human Resource Management
		MBA Entrepreneurship
		MBA Project Management
34	Radford University College	B.Sc. Business Administration
		B.A. Graphic Design
		B.A. Fashion Design (* Undergoing Re-accreditation*)
		B.Sc. Medical Laboratory Technology

		B.Sc. Applied Science (options: Applied Geology, Geo-Environmental Science and Petroleum Engineering)
		B.Sc. Physician Assistantship
35	Regent University College of Science and Technology	B.Sc. Instructional Technology (formally B.Sc. Computer with Education)
		M.Sc. Statistics
		B.Sc. Computer Science
36	Webster University	BA in Management
		BA in International Relations
		BA in Media Communications
		BS in Computer Science
		MBA: Masters in Business Administration
		MA in International Relations
37	West End University College	B.Sc. Information and Communication Technology
		B.Sc. Business Administration (Options: Banking and Finance, Accounting, Marketing, Human Resource Management, Entrepreneurship)
		B.Sc. Computer Science
		B.Sc. Procurement and Supply Chain
		B.Sc. Computational Finance
		B.A. Corporate Administration
38	Wisconsin International University College	B.A. Computer Science and Management
		B.Sc. Nursing
		Bachelor of Laws(LLB)
		B.Sc. Management and Computer Studies
		B.Sc. Economics
		M.Sc. Environmental Sustainability and Management
		B.A. Communications Studies
		B.Sc. Accounting
		B.Sc. Information Technology
		B.A. Rural Development and Ecotourism
		ABE Programmes
39	Zenith University College	B.B.A. Financial Management
		B.B.A. Human Resource Management
		B.B.A. Accounting
		B.B.A. Management
		B.B.A. Marketing

Source: www.nab.gov.gh

Table1.2: Chi-Square Test for Gender Effects

	Locally Trained Lecturer		
	Observed Values		
	Accept	Reject	Totals
Male	469	71	540
Female	321	57	378
Totals	790	128	918
	Foreign Trained Lecturer		
	Observed Values		
	Accept	Reject	Totals
Male	526	86	612
Female	538	92	630
Totals	1064	178	1242
	Locally Trained Lecturer		
	Expected Values		
	Accept	Reject	
Male	464.706	75.2941	
Female	325.294	52.7059	
	Foreign Trained Lecturer		
	Expected Values		
	Accept	Reject	
Male	524.29	87.7101	
Female	539.71	90.2899	
Chi-square locally trained	0.40578		
Chi-square foreign trained	0.78178		

Source: Field Data.
